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ON THE
BRITISH POSSESSIONS
IN THE
WEST INDIES
BY
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ON THE
SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC POSITION
AND PROSPECTS

OF THE
BRITISH WEST INDIA POSSESSIONS.

BY
WILLIAM WALKER,

MEMBER OF THE COUNCIL OF THE ROYAL COLONIAL INSTITUTE; F.R.G.S.; AND FORMERLY
GOVERNMENT-SECRETARY AND LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR OF BRITISH GUIANA.

1878.

NOTE.

THE following paper, in its present form, is the result of a suggestion emanating from the Honorary Secretary of the Royal Colonial Institute, Mr. C. W. Eddy, to the effect that the transactions of the Institute ought to embody a series of sketches of the actual condition of all the Colonial dependencies of the Empire: I earnestly hope that this imperfect attempt to give some idea of the present state of the British West Indies may be speedily succeeded by others in relation to other Colonies; and thus contribute to effect the excellent and useful purpose contemplated by Mr. Eddy.

W.



ON THE SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC POSITION AND PROSPECTS OF THE BRITISH WEST INDIA POSSESSIONS.

1. I propose in the following memoir to consider the social and economic position and prospects of the British intertropical possessions in the Western Hemisphere : although I am sensible that it is difficult satisfactorily to treat, within the necessarily restricted limits of such a paper, a subject which embraces seventeen distinct and separate communities, respecting which moreover full and accurate statistical information is not readily attainable, whilst the recorded observations of recent travellers are of the most desultory and superficial character. I trust it will be clearly understood that in this essay I presume neither to be dogmatical as to opinions nor exhaustive as to facts : my sole object is simply to direct attention to what I believe to be an interesting field for investigation, in the hope that others may correct my mistakes and supply my deficiencies.

2. These dependencies are distinguished from most others in that the African element largely predominates in their populations, owing to the circumstances that their industrial capabilities are essentially agricultural, and that the negro race has been found to be peculiarly adapted, to an extent far beyond the competition of any other, to the cultivation of their soils. But the transference of that race from its native site being accomplished only by violence, and its services secured by coercion, the communities were at first, and for a lengthened period, constituted of the simple elements of owners and slaves. In such a social condition no intricate complications were likely to arise ; the fair-skinned owner was the governor, the chattel negro was the governed ; and, as a natural and necessary corollary, "society" was composed of the governing class alone. For some time, indeed for a prolonged term of their history, that class was made up of public officers holding their appointments directly from the Crown, and of the proprietors of the soil, who formed a sort of territorial aristocracy, from which the trading class was rigorously excluded. In what are popularly known as "chartered" or settled, in contradistinction to "conquered" or Crown Colonies, the legislative function was confided to the first-named class under a form of constitution modelled upon that of the parent state ; the Governor representing the Sovereign, the Council corresponding, to some extent, to the

H. Chinese :

House of Peers, and the Assembly, as an elected body, constituting the local House of Commons. Such constitutions did not result from the volition of the settlers, but were the emanations of the prerogative of the Crown, embodied in the commissions issued by the Sovereign to the Governors; and the analogy between them and that of the parent state was far from being complete or exact; for instance, the dignity of councillor was not hereditary, and the Council possessed and exercised other functions irrespective of the legislative, such as those of a Privy Council and others which were of a judicial character. On some occasions the two chambers acted together in "grand committee" as it was called; and it would appear that at times the Council not only assumed a high tone of command over the Assembly, and what we should now regard as an undue share of legislative authority, but that it also took cognisance of complaints from individuals.* It appears, moreover, from an Act passed in 1694 by the Governor-in-Chief and the General Council and General Assembly of the Caribbee Leeward Islands, that cases of disputed elections to the Assembly were to be heard and decided by the Governor and the majority of the Council and Assembly sitting together. The qualification of both electors and representatives was the same in kind, being the possession of a freehold in land. It should be borne in mind that the so-called "chartered" Colonies were originally settled by members of families of ancient lineage and high social position in the mother-country, whose voluntary expatriation, at first stimulated by the glowing reports brought home by Raleigh and his contemporaries, became a necessity during the predominance of the Commonwealth and the temporary overthrow of the monarchy; the character of society therefore became naturally, so far as regards feeling and sympathy, strongly aristocratic, irrespective of the inevitable tendency of an organisation divided only into the two classes of lords and serfs. The early history of these settlements will be found by no means deficient in events of romantic interest, but to refer to them in detail would be incompatible with the scope of this paper.

3. The earliest cultivation attempted by the settlers would appear to have been tobacco, but sugar was introduced not long afterwards,† as we find that the local public officers and even the ministers of religion were paid by fixed quantities of one or both

* Woodcock, "Laws and Constitution of W.I. Colonies," 1838.

† The sugar-cane was introduced into Barbadoes from Brazil in 1641; it is said to have been first planted in Hispaniola, or Hayti, having been brought from the Canaries in 1506.

of those staple products ; nay, even the penalties for misdemeanours were prescribed after the same manner, as we read that profane cursing and swearing was punishable with a fine of ten pounds of sugar or tobacco, whilst drunkenness was visited with five times that quantity, or, in default, exposure in the public stocks. A further illustration of the characteristics of those times is to be found in the fact that seventy persons implicated in the rising under Penruddock and Grove, in 1655, were sold in Barbadoes at an average price of 1,550 lbs. of sugar. These white slaves, including clergymen and officers, we may remark, were treated in all respects the same as the negroes ; “ they ground in the mills, they attended the furnaces, cultivated the fields, were whipped at whipping-posts, and slept in styes worse than hogs.”* To the above-mentioned staples were subsequently added coffee and cotton.†

4. The constitution and condition of society underwent gradual modifications from the influence of various causes ; for instance, a race of mixed blood gradually arose ; the habits of extravagant expenditure indulged in by the owners of property led to embarrassments which could only be relieved by their becoming debtors to the commercial class, whose interest in the management of the estates which constituted the security for their advances became more and more operative ; and supplies for carrying on the cultivation, in lieu of being imported direct by the owners, were furnished through mercantile agencies established in the Colonies themselves. The amelioration of the stringent penal laws applicable to slaves and others sharing in the hue of the African had its influence in the process ; and when the abolition of the slave trade and of slavery became established facts, it is easy to perceive that the old exclusiveness was doomed, and that the previously existing barriers between classes were for ever broken

* “ England’s Slavery, or Barbadoes Merchandise.” London. Printed in the 11th year of England’s liberty, 1659.

† The cotton famine occasioned by the civil war in the United States gave a temporary impulse to its reproduction in our West India possessions, but it has not been found practicable hitherto to establish it as an exportable staple. In Antigua the quantities are given for

	1868, 657,000 lbs.
	1869, 353,500 „
	1870, 163,981 „
In British Guiana,—	
	1863, 15,600 „
	1864, 71,700 „
	1865, 182,020 „
	1866, 157,300 „

I have not at hand the returns for the intermediate years, but in 1871 the export had dwindled down to 12,100 lbs.

down, politically if not socially. Amongst the most prominent features which marked the transition period may be noticed the institution of Colonial bishoprics, the extension of educational efforts, the establishment of banks, both commercial and savings, and the general disbandment of the local militias, in which the freedmen had become qualified to serve. Prior to 1825 the Colonial clergy were by a sort of fiction assumed to be under the spiritual supervision of the Bishop of London for the time being; and, as it had not been deemed necessary that the persons ordained to any cure of souls should be qualified according to the requirements of the canons of the Church of England,* it will be readily understood that the institution of local episcopal jurisdictions contributed materially to the improvement of the characteristics of society; for it was scarcely to be expected that a class of men, who rather conformed to habits which they found in existence, than endeavoured to ameliorate them, should possess powers of persuasion unsupported by the testimony of their personal demeanour. Indeed, in no respect is the contrast more striking than in the spiritual and moral condition of the communities since the introduction of a staff of well-qualified and well-organised clergy, as well as of most respectable ministers of various Nonconformist churches. Hitherto the maintenance of the clergy and provision for the education of the people, in aid, to a greater or lesser extent, of voluntary efforts, have been considered as of public obligation; but altered views upon this important subject are beginning to prevail, although it seems not improbable that in some instances at any rate concurrent endowment may be preferred to disendowment. In Jamaica, for example, the Church of England has been disestablished and is in gradual process of disendowment, leaving its future constitution to be organised upon the voluntary principle, a sum of £5,000 having been granted towards the endowment fund by the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge. In British Guiana the subject has not yet come on for discussion, but the approaching termination of the existing legal provision for the maintenance of ministers of religion is causing attention to be directed to it, a Bill to incorporate a synod for the future government of the Church, and including the lay element, having been introduced into the Court of Policy. Trinidad has been recently separated from the jurisdiction of the Bishop of Barbadoes, and erected into an independent diocese, the Church being virtually disestablished; and I believe a similar arrangement is contemplated

* Woodcock, "Law and Constitution of W. I. Colonies."

with respect to British Honduras, the Bahama Islands, and some of the Leeward Islands, where public provision for ecclesiastical objects is also ceasing to be made.

5. A most noticeable feature of the changed social constitution of those communities consequent upon the abolition of slavery, consists in the introduction of a variety of exotic races to supply the places of the labourers whose services were withdrawn from the cultivation of the soil. This importation, although vehemently opposed from the first by the benevolent but injudicious friends of the indigenous peasantry, has been found to be so absolutely indispensable to the prosperity of many of these Colonies, that it may be regarded as a settled and permanent arrangement under Government sanction and control. It is impossible not to be struck with the short-sighted policy which long interposed every conceivable species of difficulty in the way of immigration, and even yet is not without its influence in restricting the area of selection and enhancing the cost of the aid thus sought.* Another indication of social modifications incidental to the momentous change above adverted to was the eagerness with which—in one Colony more especially, British Guiana—the newly-emancipated peasantry hastened to invest their savings in the purchase and occupation of real property. Estates of considerable extent, which the proprietors had no longer the means, or the mortgagees the wish, to keep in cultivation, were bought by associations of negroes, who paid down a portion of the purchase money, leaving the property charged with the balance, and the fact was quoted at the time as a proof of the industry of the people, and an evidence of their fitness to manage their own affairs. But, without going into details, the results were in every, or nearly every, case most unpropitious, if not positively disastrous; and it is now only after the lapse of a third of a century, and by means of legislation of a very exceptional character, that order has begun to be developed out of chaos, and the existing generation of freeholders enabled to enjoy the benefits and recognise the obligations of their position.† I am much gratified in being enabled to quote a paragraph from a very recent Demerara newspaper relative to the position of a joint-

* "We avowedly promoted also immigration, but with such needless and mischievous restrictions, under a fastidious dread of reviving slave trade, as to incur responsibility for frustrating instead of promoting the main chance of a prosperous transition from slavery into the freedom which we were inaugurating. While suddenly depriving the planters of slaves, we needlessly barred the influx of free labour, a full supply of which was a necessary complement to emancipation."—*Sir C. B. Adderley, "Col. Policy and History."* Lond. 1869.

† "The Commissioners found the villages generally in a most unsatisfactory

stock sugar estate in one of the finest districts of the Colony. "We understand the villagers of Triumph are getting on very well with their sugar estate; a few days ago a black man purchased a single share, for which he paid 2,000 dollars in cash. The shareholders have ordered from England upwards of £2,000 worth of new machinery." From private sources I learn that the proprietors of this estate had paid to the Colony the amount which entitled them to a transport (or conveyance) of the property, \$26,000. The number of shareholders is now, I believe, eight. Another source of supply has not been altogether overlooked. It was hoped that it might be found practicable to induce some portion of the negroes of the Southern States of the Union to emigrate to the British West Indies, and I visited Washington with that object in 1862.* Political considerations interposed to prevent the carrying the scheme out at that time; but I was strongly impressed likewise with the conviction, from such opportunities as I had of personal communication with them, that the freed slaves were by no means voluntarily disposed to quit the country of which they had the prospect of becoming citizens, by any prospect of bettering their condition elsewhere. Indeed, even the arrangements made with the sanction of the Federal Government to induce the "coloured people" to emigrate to Liberia were bitterly denounced by some of their leaders. The escaped negroes

state, and in some instances in a deplorable condition; the houses in the latter cases in ruin and disrepair, and the lands attached to them undrained, uncultivated, and neglected; the back lands totally abandoned, thereby forcing the owners to lease lands on contiguous estates for the growth of their provisions. Even on those villages where there was no want of drainage, and where provisions grew luxuriantly, we found the means of internal communication most defective, and the most utter disregard for all sanitary considerations. The villages just referred to are those which, with their lands, comprise entire estates, which were bought by communities of the labouring population, varying in number from seventy to one hundred, and were subdivided by them in equal shares, some of which estates have already been, and others are in course of being legally partitioned and transported to the original shareholders or their representatives. There is another class of villages which are those situated on the front lands of estates, and were originally sold to the people by the proprietors with the view of forming a resident population on their plantations. The understanding in these cases seems to have been that the estate was to keep up the drainage and public roads passing through said villages, and the villagers themselves merely to maintain the drains leading from their lots to the main draining trenches of the estates; but from the estates themselves having in some cases changed hands, and in other cases from the course of the drainage having been altered, this understanding has not in all instances been adhered to, and the villagers have suffered in consequence."—*Report on Villages*, May, 1865.

* "Lord Grey urged the enlistment of free black and coloured labourers from the Southern States, which mode of supply the West India Committee of 1842 had suggested, but which was somewhat hazardous of international misunderstanding, and could only be effected by small and irregular instalments as occasion might offer."—*Sir C. B. Adderley, ante*, 298.

who settled in Canada during the existence of slavery have also not been lost sight of; and more than one deputation has visited the West Indies to "inquire and report," but hitherto without any substantial result. These facts will, however, serve to illustrate the extent and magnitude of the chronic demand for labour in the larger part of these possessions. Co-operation in trading speculations was also largely tried, but, so far as my own information goes, with no encouraging degree of success; these endeavours are, however, not to be disregarded in any attempt to forecast the future social condition of the communities in which they have been made. Failures in the outset do not necessarily infer the impossibility of ultimate success; and the tendency of such associations to create capital from local resources, and for local purposes, may yet have considerable influence, if wisely directed and prudently managed, upon the progress of the Colonies of which we are treating.

6. Some idea may be formed of the extent of the system of village communities in British Guiana when it is stated that out of a total of 181,492, representing the rural population or peasantry, upwards of 88,000 are returned as inhabitants of villages, being an increase of upwards of 25,000 in the ten years included in the returns of the Census of 1871. Of other Colonies I do not possess sufficient information of recent date to enable me to speak with confidence. But of the villages in Antigua, upon which it was my duty to report officially some thirty years ago, we read in a local paper commenting upon the latest census, 1871, the following graphic description:—"In the majority of instances the plot of land purchased rarely exceeds forty square feet in extent, and on a portion of this a wretched hovel is erected, often containing but one room, and that unfloored and imperfectly ventilated, and in which not unfrequently five or six persons, adults and children of both sexes, sleep together at night." This does not indicate much improvement, but at the same time does not, unfortunately, compare unfavourably with certain recorded illustrations of the habits of the rural population in some parts of England.*

7. It was unquestionably a grave error of policy on the part of the planters not to have given their labourers at the time of

* See the *Times* of January, 1873, "A Case in Wiltshire." And again, in that journal for the 23rd May, quoting from the report of the Irish Registrar-General, the subjoined passage descriptive of an Irish cottier's home:—"The Registrar of Louisburgh, Westport, says, I will give an example of the contents of a dilapidated one-room house. A man and his wife with five children (two in scarlatina), a mother-in-law, with a son and daughter and grandchild; two pigs, two donkeys, and some hens."

emancipation, security of tenure to allotments of land upon their estates, and to mix up, as many of them persistently did, the questions of rent and labour; the negro has strong local as well as personal attachments, but if he becomes once unsettled or distrustful, it is difficult to overcome those adverse influences. Still, we must in fairness remember that this is one of those instances in which it is easy to be wise after the time; and under the feelings engendered by the somewhat rough-and-ready method in which slavery was abolished, the planters were, not unnaturally, but little disposed to recognise the newly-acquired social status of their quondam slaves.

8. The one vital condition upon which these Colonies are dependent, speaking generally, not merely for prosperity but for actual existence, is the cultivation of the soil; and the great difficulty in the way of their success is deficiency of population. At present, industry is nearly exclusively devoted to the production of the one article—sugar; but it is self-evident, not only that an enlarged labour market would almost indefinitely augment the returns of that staple, but that it would supplement it by ample contributions of the thousand other valuable products of tropical soils, which the want of hands alone prevents from assuming their proper places in our bills of lading and prices current.

9. In a brief address to the smaller freeholders of British Guiana, which it became my duty to prepare in connection with the local Exhibition held in Georgetown in 1871, I called attention to the immense diversities of useful products available to them with comparatively little labour or capital, instancing amongst others, varieties of farines, dried bananas, arrowroot, and *tous les mois*, cassaripe, and other articles capable of contributing in various degrees and ways to the food supplies of other countries. A curious illustration of the importance of common things was adduced in the circumstance of a Spanish Creole, of Trinidad, who converted old soap-boxes into beehives, from which he derived bees' wax, a commodity valued at from £7 10s. to £8 10s. per cwt. and of which the exports from Jamaica in one year, prepared in equally primitive fashion, was valued at £5,575. Of leading articles, such as elastic gums, tobacco, cocoa—of which 6,500,000lbs. were exported from Trinidad alone in 1870*—coffee, Indian corn, cocoa-nut oil, tanning and dyeing substances, and especially of vegetable fibres, it seems almost needless to speak, they are only

* The declared value of cocoa imported in 1870 was £371,997; in 1871, £396,151; and in 1872, £467,464. The consumption has been steadily increasing for some time.—*Times*, January 20, 1873.

samples of an inexhaustible stock of natural resources hitherto in no way adequately turned to account in many of these dependencies, and peculiarly within the capacity of the agricultural population to render profitable.

10. The future of any community can hardly be considered satisfactorily provided for, when its chief element of vitality consists in the cultivation of a single staple, and especially when, as in the case of sugar, the area of cultivation of the cane is becoming yearly more extended and scattered, and the extraction of sugar from the beet is assuming a formidably competitive character. Even the Colony of Honduras is gradually superseding mahogany cutting by the cultivation of the cane; whilst, as regards beetroot sugar, irrespective of the efforts making to establish it as a native industry in this country, we find that the imports in the months of January 1869, 1870, 1871, and 1872 respectively, were as under :

1869.....	4,580 tons.		1871.....	21,750 tons.	} For the five weeks ending Feb. 3.
1870.....	11,770 „		1872.....	26,216 „	

The California newspapers of November, 1870, announced the production of the first ton of crystallised beetroot sugar there, manufactured by home-made machinery; and I am enabled to quote the following from the circular of an eminent Liverpool firm as to the general prospects of beetroot sugar:—"The crop of 1872-73 is not likely to exceed that of last year, owing to unfavourable weather; that of last year was disappointing, owing to the expectations of a short crop from the West Indies not being realised. The beetroot industry is now extending all over the Continent of Europe. Many additional factories, of monster size, have been erected in France, capable of producing from 5,000 to 20,000 tons per annum. In Europe production has been doubled within the last few years, and now exceeds 1,000,000 tons, and during the next five or ten years will probably reach 2,000,000 tons, equal to the present consumption of the whole world. In Holland, where it has only existed a few years, 5 or 6 new factories were started last year. In Rome a company has been patronised by the Italian Government; and there are several joint-stock companies in the United States. England alone lags behind—only one isolated experimental but successful manufactory at Lavenham, and not a single new company announced for the cultivation of beet sugar and its contingent products." Canada may now be included in the list of countries where beet cultivation for the manufacture of sugar has been commenced.

11. A very exceptional case of great variety in the exports of

local products may be instanced in Jamaica, where Sir John P. Grant, the Governor, remarks, in alluding to the returns of actual acreage under cultivation in every sort of produce, "The result will, I believe, surprise those who have been in the habit of regarding Jamaica as a mere sugar-producing island." In the list we find annatto, arrowroot, bamboos, bees' wax, cassava, cocoa-nuts, coffee, bananas and plantains, ginger, lime-juice, pimento, walking-sticks, succades, tamarinds, tortoiseshell, yams, bitterwood, fustic, and logwood. This list seems to have excited the emulation of the inhabitants of Dominica, who are quite conscious of the insufficiency of their staple, low-quality muscovado, to compete successfully with vacuum pans, central refineries, and beet-root sugar.*

12. Should, however, the time ever arrive when the capital now invested in the West Indian Colonies in the production of sugar shall be withdrawn to any serious extent, before other remunerative products shall be developed to induce the continuance of its employment there, the consequences can hardly be other than most disastrous to the interests of all classes in those communities. There would be, no doubt, an element of danger in the mere accumulation of physical strength in such communities, namely, that it might overbear the proportion of legislative and administrative intelligence available; for, under existing impressions as to their climatic drawbacks, the West Indies seem unlikely to become the permanent abodes of proportionate numbers of men of European birth, although I cannot myself see any adequate reason why a class of smaller landed proprietors should not establish themselves there in a position of comparative comfort, if not of positive luxury. The remark of the President of the Virgin Islands upon this point I believe to be quite as applicable to many, if not most, of the other Colonies. He says, "I think I may safely add, that I have seldom seen a better opportunity than is presented in Tortola for a few men of practical experience, having a little capital to commence with, to make a comfortable livelihood, and in a few years to add considerably to their original capital in a healthy tropical climate." The deficiency of supplies of live stock of all kinds, and of garden and farm produce, is a chronic matter of complaint throughout these Colonies, and not merely affects the comfort but enhances the cost of living there. It must, moreover, be borne in mind that capital has a natural tendency to flow wherever profit is to be realised, and consequently, that a greater

* Dominican newspaper, August, 1871.

command of labour would undoubtedly induce many to extend, and some to begin, its employment in those naturally rich and beautiful and highly-endowed regions.*

13. During the continued existence of the slave trade between Africa and the Spanish and Portuguese Colonies, such occasional accessions of this class of labourers as were received through the instrumentality of the British cruisers were highly valued, and assuredly it cannot be proved that any but beneficial results accrued to the liberated Africans themselves. It would appear that Her Majesty's cruisers still unhappily find employment on the east coast of Africa in endeavouring to check the slave trade, and what is somewhat surprising, that the Africans thereby liberated are conveyed to places where they are maintained at the cost of the Imperial Exchequer. If this be so, there ought to be no difficulty in relieving that much-enduring animal, the British taxpayer, to this extent at least; whilst all will cordially unite in the fervent hope that the enterprise undertaken by that estimable man and able administrator, Sir Bartle Frere, may be crowned with speedy and complete success. Of the free immigrations actually established, the most important in character, although not numerically, is that from Madeira, whose inhabitants combine great natural shrewdness and intelligence with peculiar aptitude for agricultural labour, and the valuable personal qualities of thrift and perseverance; hence they rapidly took positions amongst the possessors of landed and household property, and of shipping, as well as amongst merchants, traders, and artisans. The total number received in the West Indies is given in the report of the Emigration Commissioners for 1871 at 85,726; of these a small proportion was from Cape de Verdes, and a few came from the Azores: of the whole number, 29,536 are debited to British Guiana. Next to these come the natives of China, of whom 16,222 are returned as having arrived up to 1866 inclusive, when the immigration seems to have ceased; they are generally intelligent and industrious, but alloyed with a large proportion of an idle and predatory element: last of all, the natives of India, amounting to upwards of 137,000, more to be depended upon for steadiness of work, but not so robust in thews and sinews. Each of these classes, it cannot be doubted, will, in varying degrees, affect the social condition and

* Although not strictly within the scope of this paper, I may here refer to Wallace's glowing description of the attractions of the country bordering on the Rio Negro, in the interior of Guiana. See "*Travels on the Amazon and Rio Negro.*" London, 8vo. 1853, p. 334, *et. seq.*; the passage is quoted at length in the Appendix (A).

prospects of the communities in which it abides; but the influx of the two first-named has been checked, owing to the operation of different causes. In Madeira it was the wide-spread distress occasioned by the failure of the vine cultivation, and the pressure of population upon the means of subsistence, which led to the exodus of so many thousands of the peasantry; but that reason no longer exists. There has been, however, perhaps no more remarkable illustration of the benefits resulting from a change of spheres of labour induced by circumstances, than in the case of these people. Originally uneducated themselves, and indifferent to the education of their children, content with the coarsest fare and the most squalid accommodation, their social progress has nevertheless been steady and persistent: better clothing, superior diet, dwellings inferior to none, liberal provision for the improvement of their children, have distinctively characterised the course of the domiciliation of the Madeirans in the West Indies, and especially in British Guiana. Of the capability of the Chinese in like manner to become prosperous Colonists, our experience affords sufficient proofs, although it is to be regretted they do not exist upon a more extended scale,* whilst diplomatic difficulties have for the

* About nine years have elapsed since the commencement of a Chinese village settlement upon one of the islands in the River Demerara, which received the name of "Hope Town," in compliment to the gallant Admiral Sir James Hope, at that time Commander-in-Chief of the Naval Forces in North America and the West Indies, who paid it a visit of inspection.

From a report subsequently made to the Governor by the Stipendiary Magistrate of the District, we gather the following particulars. The report is dated in September, and mentions that heavy rains had delayed the occupation of the lands until the month of June, since which date 150 settlers, originally imported as agricultural labourers under indenture, had constructed rainproof dwellings in eighteen allotments, and cleared more than sixty acres of heavily-timbered land. They were all engaged in the manufacture of charcoal, fifteen large furnaces having been erected and ten others being in progress. Each of these must have required a large amount of labour, as their walls were of solid earth, from three to five feet in thickness: they were covered with substantial thatched roofs, and would contain from fifty to one hundred barrels of charcoal, of far superior quality to any previously manufactured either by Creoles or Madeirans; the produce was equal to 1,700 barrels per month, which was expected soon to be increased to 3,000.

The settlers did not contemplate planting on a large scale until they should be sufficiently numerous to undertake the drainage of the whole settlement effectively; and they were also desirous of first repaying the Government loan advanced to enable them to commence operations, the sale of charcoal being of course the most promptly available means.

They all expressed themselves contented, hopeful of success, and not desirous of returning to estates' labour; they talked of bringing out their relatives from China at their own expense. They only complained of the difficulty of obtaining supplies of fresh meat, to which they had been accustomed, but they were very healthy; some already possessed pigs and poultry, which would be increased when their rice-grounds began to bear. They were anxious to have a school for their children. I regret that I have been unable to obtain any more recent authentic information as to the progress of this interesting experi-

present suspended the augmentation of that useful class of immigrants. There is, however, I am happy to learn, a prospect of the reopening of the source of supply afforded by access to the Chinese population, albeit upon terms more onerous and stringent than have been hitherto stipulated for. It is, I believe, understood, that if the planters are willing to enter into agreements such as the Spanish authorities have conceded, it may be practicable to admit them again to share in the competition for Chinese labourers. Even the immigration from the East Indies is now attended by increasing hindrances and drawbacks, partly ascribable to the enlarged and more diversified demand for labour in that Empire itself, and partly to the jealousy with which such temporary expatriation has ever been regarded by the local authorities, although the return of the immigrants after a stated period of service at the cost of the importing communities has been guaranteed and faithfully carried out. The experiment is, I am informed, to be once more tried of introducing labourers from the Madras as well as from the Bengal territory; in connection with which it is worthy of notice that by way of compensation for relinquishing the introduction of Africans, the French were some years ago permitted, as the Dutch have also more recently been, to recruit their labour market from the British territories, thus entering into a formidable competition with our own Colonists.* Malta also is under consideration as a field for immigrants. I am under the impression that this experiment was tried at some time previously to 1842, shortly after emancipation, but it was not successful. If my recollection be accurate, however, it was at that time merely a private speculation, and not under Government control.

14. Each of the above-mentioned races has already contributed, pretty much in the order in which it has been mentioned, to the

ment. For some years past there has been a large influx of these people to the Pacific States of the American Union, and if they can be domiciled in the Southern States, the ultimate restoration of the prosperity of those States may be confidently predicted. Considerable numbers have passed into British Columbia, and it seems probable that they may be largely employed in the construction of the Canada Pacific Railroad. Still more recently I observe that the Samana Bay Company are said to contemplate their introduction with the view of enabling them to turn their newly-acquired possessions to profitable account. The possible effect of the migration of such a people to the Western hemisphere becomes of itself a most interesting theme of speculation.

* Even before this right was formally conceded to France by treaty, it was computed that between thirty and forty thousand natives of the Madras province had been smuggled to Réunion (Bourbon) through Pondicherry; and with respect to the treaty itself, Mr. Stephen Cave pointedly remarked: "But the fact is, we give up everything and get nothing." Whatever may have been the errors of his late Imperial Majesty, neglect of the French Colonies, or indifference to their interests, cannot be numbered amongst his failings.

important end of creating an intelligent and influential middle class of society, a feature in which that of the West India Colonies generally has been hitherto notably deficient ; and when such a class shall become freely distributed over the rural districts, instead of being, as at present, chiefly found amongst the urban or village populations, a great step will have been achieved towards ensuring the future prosperity of the communities.

15. The greatly altered conditions in the constitution of society have led to organic modifications in the system of local government. Some of the dependencies in which, upon their original settlement, the constitutional forms of the mother-country were adopted, having become satisfied of their inappropriateness to existing circumstances, have acceded to arrangements of a simpler character, and under which the influence of the Executive Government will be more operative ; thus approximating towards the model of the Colonies conquered from foreign powers, whose legislative institutions were preserved, and have been maintained with but comparatively little alteration—a circumstance to which their more rapid and relatively more complete recovery from the shocks of emancipation and free trade may be attributed. On the other hand, it is not unreasonable to anticipate that in such last-mentioned possessions the gradual creation of a middle-class of holders of real property will lead to a greater development of the democratic element, and the consequent substitution of more direct representation in the forms of local government. The question of qualification is not unattended with difficulty, but the soundest principle in regard to such communities would seem to be that of the old common law, namely, the possession of land in the country, or of houses in towns.

16. It seems to be worthy of notice that even in the island of Barbadoes, where the ancient landmarks have been preserved intact in a remarkable degree, a feeling appears to exist in some quarters favourable to the substitution of a single legislative chamber.* In Jamaica, again, there is considerable opposition yet to the changes carried out under the vigorous and efficient administration of Sir John Peter Grant. Without presuming to pronounce any positive opinion as to the question at issue, the fact would seem to be indisputable that since the date of such changes, the condition and prospects of the island are in marked and gratifying contrast to those which it previously exhibited.

17. One very interesting point of comparison may be incident-

* *Barbadoes Globe*, October, 1872.

ally noted between the social aspects of those communities under the old state of things, as previously described, and that which they have gradually assumed. West India hospitality was proverbial, and every traveller was certain to be favourably impressed by it. But in those days, as down to a much more recent period in the Southern States of the American Union, it was essentially of a feudal character. The proprietors themselves then dwelt upon their plantations, and were content to live and die amongst their own people. Communication with the old country was neither frequent nor convenient, and there was therefore but little temptation to quit the delightful climate and abundant ease of what was looked upon as home. But the course of events gradually but surely changed those habits; the family mansions became deserted, as the means of keeping them up became circumscribed; managers succeeded owners in charge of the estates, and were not only limited in income, but liable to be suddenly and unexpectedly removed. Yet substantially the feeling still exists, and permeates all classes of society; it would be rare, indeed, for the traveller to be refused such hospitality as the means of the host can afford, whether he visit the employer's house or the labourer's hut; whilst every case of privation, of distress or suffering, elicits such general and substantial evidence of practical sympathy as proves society to be sound at the core, and to be rather varied in its constituents than deteriorated in its characteristics. Nor ought we to overlook the spirit in which every appeal for support to any object of a national character has been responded to by those communities. The relief of the sufferers by famine in Ireland, and from the mutiny in India, and the national memorial to the late Prince Consort, may be cited as three of the many occasions on which their inhabitants, of every rank and class and race, came forward with their contributions in a manner which can never be forgotten by those who had personal experience of the circumstances.

18. In attempting to treat the somewhat perplexing question of the social and economic future of these valuable and interesting portions of the Imperial dominions, it is impossible to ignore the fact that national views upon Colonial policy have undergone a complete revulsion. So far from being eager to acquire or to establish new, or to extend the limits of old dependencies, the prevailing feeling seems to be one of indifference, if not of alienation; and although it may be argued that such feeling originates in ignorance, the difficulty of removing that ignorance leaves it very influential with the mass of the people: but we may indulge the

hope that the Royal Colonial Institute will be one, and not the least efficient, agent in creating a more healthy tone of public opinion. The true policy to ensure the future prosperity of the group with which we have to deal, would seem to be to facilitate the introduction of races physically qualified to undertake agricultural labour, and to encourage their permanent settlement, and that of capitalists by whom such labour could be made available. The policy of encouraging the Indian immigrants to commute their right to a free return passage for grants of land has for some time been recognised, but not as yet acted upon to any great extent. In British Guiana two estates have been purchased with that object, and in Trinidad it is said in a recent paper, that numerous grants have been made: the total number of Indian immigrants who up to the end of 1871 have applied for, or have actually taken possession of, land in commutation of their right to a free return passage to India is 285; the lots are of ten acres each, and the pecuniary benefit to the Colony, direct and indirect, arising from the experiment is calculated at not less than £27,500.* It is obviously, therefore, a question worthy of the best attention of the local Governments specially interested. As the case actually stands, the larger Colonies, in which British capital is liberally, and upon the whole profitably invested, will probably remain relatively prosperous and improving, whilst the smaller communities will continue to be characterised by a greater or lesser degree of stagnation, there being nothing to encourage the influx of capital from without to stimulate production, and their local energies and means being inadequate to the creation of that indispensable element of prosperity. Jamaica, for example, is undoubtedly exhibiting indications of revival from the state of prostration into which it had fallen; but in so far as any rate as the production of the staple commodity is concerned, the introduction of labourers whose services can be depended upon by the landholders is evidently essential, although it has not hitherto been carried out to anything like the extent of the enterprise exhibited by Guiana and Trinidad. The revenue for 1868-9 and that for 1869-70 were nearly the same, £441,489 against £440,522, whilst in 1848 the diminution in the July quarter alone, as contrasted with that of the preceding year, amounted to no less than £10,502; and even only three years ago it is officially stated that the financial position of the Colony was that of imminent insolvency. But the undeveloped capacity of this Colony for still greater prosperity may be suffi-

* Thirty-second General Report of Emigration Commissioners, 1871.

ciently judged of by the statement that whilst its area is returned at 2,720,000 acres, only 528,806 are under cultivation. The cinchona plantations may be now pronounced a complete success, and will constitute a most valuable addition to the staples of the Colony; moreover, 600 plants of Assam tea arrived in good order during the year, and have been successfully planted out, and tobacco, it is stated, may possibly be numbered amongst the exports of the current year, owing to the stimulus given to its production by the settlement in Jamaica of refugees from Cuba.

19. With regard to the smaller islands, on the other hand, one administrator of the Government observes that "in these small West India Colonies it is something to be able to show that there has been no retrogression: in our case (St. Lucia) there has been even some improvement," and this was maintained in 1870. Another (Grenada) says that "the trade of the Colony, both as regards the imports and exports, has been gradually declining during the last five years, but a change may, however, be looked for, in consequence of the improved tone in the produce markets." It is gratifying to find this anticipation verified as regards 1870, when the value of exports had increased by £5,218: the value of the sugar was £54,328, and of cocoa, £50,406. A third (Tobago) bears testimony to "the unimpaired energy with which the local planters struggle against the discouragements and difficulties with which they have had to contend." A marked improvement is recorded in 1870 as respects the cultivation of the cane and manufacture of sugar. The Virgin Islands have long since ceased to produce sugar for exportation. In Dominica, the very fertility of the soil is adduced as one of the reasons of the financial poverty of the island: agricultural labourers, on wages obtained for two or three days' work, can subsist for the whole week. Squatting is also prevalent both on Crown lands and on abandoned private estates; hence when labour is most required, in crop time, it is often difficult to obtain it. In 1870, however, the Lieut.-Governor remarks that he considers the island to be slowly but steadily progressing. The question of squatting, which is of practical importance in more than one West India Colony, appears to have been boldly grappled with and adjusted in Jamaica. The Bahamas and Turk's Islands are not sugar-producing Colonies: of the former the Governor states, "the general condition of the Colony is far from satisfactory," but in 1870 he was able to meet the Legislature under more encouraging circumstances; and of the latter, in 1869, the President says, "I fear I cannot report very hopefully on the general state of this Colony," and for 1870 he expresses an even

more unfavourable opinion. Montserrat seems to have been stationary, there being but four or five sugar estates that are efficiently worked. St. Vincent; St. Kitts, which, next to Barbadoes, may be regarded as the most independent of auxiliary labour, and, like it, is, to use the common expression, "cultivated like a garden;" and Nevis, its near neighbour, may be included amongst the improving Colonies, great benefits being there anticipated from the introduction of the federal system of administration.

20. In relation to the general question of the prospects of these Colonies, the operation of other influences must not be altogether lost sight of: it is, I believe, incontestable, that the inhabitants, especially those of African descent, have of late years suffered from some types of disease, formerly either unknown or but of rare occurrence,* whilst their physical constitutions, from insufficient and innutritious aliment, and inadequate house accommodation, have become less capable of resisting or of rallying from the attacks of disease.† Moreover, the necessity of making public provision for the support of paupers, including lunatics and lepers, has become progressively more urgent, and is now generally felt to press heavily upon a class, some of whose members, like their compeers in this country, are themselves but little above pauperism in the social scale. The gradual and now almost entire withdrawal of the pecuniary outlay on the part of the mother country for military defence, for the clergy, and for educational purposes, lightly as it is talked of or written about *here*, is undeniably a weighty addition to the burden of self-support which those communities are now called upon to assume.

21. Dr. Hancock, quoted in Schomburgk's "Description of

* A remarkable circumstance is the recent occurrence in British Guiana of several fatal cases of hydrophobia, for it was formerly always assumed that this terrible disease was, if not impossible, certainly unknown in intertropical countries.

† The report of the Surgeon-General of British Guiana on the Public Hospital of Demerara and Essequibo for the year 1859, developed some very startling conclusions with respect to the physical condition of the indigenous population. It was there shown that the proportion of cases of this class treated in the hospital had increased from one-sixth in 1849 to one-half in 1859; whilst the improved arrangements for the care of the immigrants upon estates had resulted in a diminution of the proportion, notwithstanding their largely increased numbers, to little more in 1859 than one-third of what it had been in 1849. The Surgeon-General ascribed this deterioration to the want of sufficient drainage, the state of disrepair of their habitations, and to the neglect of a sufficient consumption of animal food; and he recorded his opinion that what is commonly termed the Creole labouring population is gradually falling off as regards health, strength, and aptitude for labour; and these views were strongly corroborated by reports from persons in charge of the public dispensaries in the rural districts.

British Guiana," asserts, that during his long practice on the coast he "never met with an instance of genuine tubercular phthisis, nor a single case of calculus, generated there;" but the reports of the Surgeon-General and of the Health Officer of the city of Georgetown in British Guiana, for some time past, bear testimony to a less satisfactory sanitary condition of the urban population, and it has been suggested to me, that on the one hand the atmosphere is less saturated with humidity, and on the other, the trade winds less regular than heretofore; it is earnestly to be hoped that the attention of the medical profession may be directed to this subject, with the view of bringing to the test of careful and scientific observation the accuracy or the fallacy of these assumptions. In order to avoid enlarging this paper to an inconvenient extent, I propose to throw, in this and other instances, some documentary illustrations into the shape of an Appendix.

22. The important question of the progress of population in these Colonies is very difficult of determination owing to the want of accurate registration, a drawback which, however, is believed to be in gradual course of removal. There is a prevalent though perhaps somewhat indefinite impression, that the African type of the population is decreasing, and that this partly arises from indifference to the conservation of life, not merely amongst the aged and infirm, but amongst infants. Indeed, suggestions of the prevalence of infanticide are of by no means infrequent occurrence in the local newspapers,* but, so far as I am aware, the only instance in which a positive decrease of the population generally seems to be disclosed by the latest census returns, is in the case of the Island of Antigua, where it is alleged that, comparing the census of 1871 with that of 1861, after making allowances for both emigration and immigration, the decrease was close upon 2,000—a serious proportion in a population amounting in round numbers to

* It is consolatory to think that the subjoined paragraph from a Jamaica newspaper does not apply to the British possessions or any decrease of the infant population would be unsatisfactorily accounted for!—

"Jamel, November 1, 1871. A negro woman has just been arrested, who, according to unquestionable evidence, has been eating young children; twenty-six are known to have been disposed of by this monster, in this way. The practice is not so uncommon in Hayti as is generally supposed." It is remarkable that since this note was set up in type, the statement it contains receives some support in a most interesting and valuable letter from the special correspondent of the *Times*, dated Havana, February 2, and published in the *Times* of the 20th. Alluding to the condition of Hayti under native Government, he says he has been assured "on good authority" that cases of cannibalism are not unfrequent.

some 35,000 or 36,000. A very painful impression is produced by the perusal of the reports of the district medical officers in Antigua, dated in November and December last, as to the condition in every respect, of the peasantry. One or two illustrations are all I shall attempt to introduce here, feeling that the paper has already trespassed upon the limits of your patience. In reply to the interrogatories of Dr. Freeland, M. N. answers that she does not know her age; she has had thirteen children, none living, the last having died three days previously; four of these children were by one father, four by another, and the remaining five by five different fathers. N. R. had nine children, only two alive; the latest two were by the same father; each of the other seven had a different father. In one of the villages, one woman—married—had eighteen children, of whom only four survived. Two of the children are not by her husband, although he supports them. The great disproportion in other instances between the births and deaths has led to doubts as to the accuracy of the registers. I may add that the census reports for 1871, in so far as I have had the opportunity of consulting them in relation to several Colonies, are far in advance of their precursors in point of fulness and accuracy.*

23. The progress of elementary education in these Colonies has been since the emancipation of the slaves as substantial and extensive as was perhaps to be expected, if even, as there can be no doubt, it still leaves very much to be desired. Comparing the report of Mr. La Trobe, shortly after that epoch, with the results of recent inspections, there is ample evidence as to the consistent and persevering efforts made by all the religious denominations, and which have been liberally aided by pecuniary grants from the public chests; and in several Colonies institutions for the higher training of selected students are in active and successful operation. Of the mental capacity of the native children to avail themselves of these advantages there can be no question; the greater difficulty has been to provide an adequate supply of qualified teachers, but in this respect a marked improvement is to be recorded. A most valuable and interesting Report upon Education in Trinidad, by Mr. P. J. Keenan, Commissioner of National Education in Ireland, has been published in a Blue-book of 150 folio pages, embodying a new scheme for general elementary education, well worthy of consideration by the local authorities of other West Indian communities. A scheme very similar in many respects, but somewhat more decidedly denominational in its character, had been pre-

viously adopted in British Guiana. In those Colonies, however, as in the mother-country, a very serious obstacle to carrying out any general system of elementary education is found in the want of power to compel the attendance of children at *some* school. Having, in years gone by, taken some personal share in the discussion of this most important subject, I trust my testimony may be accepted as to the earnest desire of the planting body to cordially co-operate with the efforts of the West India Governments in its promotion.

24. The amazing fertility of those territories, the vastness of their yet undeveloped areas, taken collectively, and the sparseness of their respective populations, always excepting the Island of Barbadoes, about the size of the Isle of Wight, with a population said to be equal to nearly 1,000 to the square mile, whilst British Guiana has not three to the square mile of our assumed limits, forbid the assumption that they have attained the culminating point of their career, and still more that they are on the path of declension from natural and inevitable causes.

25. There are those who look forward to the inhabitants of mixed blood becoming the predominant and, in fact, governing race, both whites and negroes gradually receding, from different causes, in the scale of political and social influence. On the other hand, we have the expressed conviction of scientific physiologists that no hybrid race can be maintained beyond the third or fourth generation without intermixture: they must intermarry with the pure races or die out.* It is alleged, moreover, that hybrids between the negro and Latin races are more fertile than those between negroes and persons of Teutonic or Scandinavian origin.† The question as to the extent to which our various immigrant races may amalgamate with the Creole population is one of considerable practical interest. Hitherto, so far as comes within my means of information, such instances are exceptional, but I was much struck by the allusion in the speech of Mr. Stephen Cave on Slavery in Cuba, in the last session of Parliament, to the fact of prolific

* A passage in the letter of the Special Correspondent of the *Times* at Havana, already alluded to in a note, bears to some extent upon this point: "Negroes alone of pure African blood are considered to be fit for agricultural labour; while Hindu and Chinese coolies, of whom there are estimated to be 60,000 in Cuba alone, cannot do the same kind or amount of work; and as to their children, all are said to dwindle in size, strength, spirit, and energy with each new generation. First importations are useful, but nothing can be made out of their children, or the produce of mixed connections; they often, however, gain in intelligence what they lose in strength." The writer adds, that slaves from Africa are still smuggled into Cuba, and that the demand is so great that the value of a negro is now from £250 to £300, and even reaches £400.

† Dr. Knox, "Races of Men," London, 1860.

unions having taken place between Chinese men and negro women in Trinidad. I am aware of a few such cases between Chinese men and Madeiran women in British Guiana. The conclusion at which I have arrived upon the main question is, that the progressive material prosperity and political importance of those communities will depend upon the continued influx of the European races as the leavening material indispensable to the healthy and vigorous vitality of the body corporate. At the same time, the mixed race will and must, with the help thus afforded, acquire and exercise a larger proportionate influence in the administration of local affairs. There need be no antagonism in their relative positions; already the social barriers are weakening and becoming less recognisable under the influence of the facilities of intercourse with what even the natives habitually call "home," and the higher scale of education within their reach in the schools and universities of Europe.

26. A remarkable feature in the recent commercial improvement of these Colonies is the rapid development of their trade with the United States. Until within the last few years the American cargoes of lumber and food supplies were paid for in cash and old metal; now the British and French colonies have been alike finding their best market in the Northern States; but how far this outlet is to be permanently depended upon, can be only determined after longer experience.

27. I am enabled to append to this paper a very carefully elaborated approximate account current of the transactions of the sugar estates in British Guiana during the year 1871, which was published in the *Royal Gazette* of March 25, 1872. I do not, for I am not in a position to do so, guarantee the accuracy of the figures and calculations, but I have not met with any communication challenging their good faith from any one in or connected with the Colony. (Appendix C.)

28. It may be noticed that I have omitted all allusion to the aboriginal races still to be met with in these dependencies. Interesting as they undoubtedly are in various respects, they cannot sensibly affect the social or politico-economical aspects of the communities of which they form part. It is generally, and I believe correctly, assumed that their numbers are gradually diminishing, but a recent traveller* asserts that in Dominica their numbers have considerably increased within the last few years, which is, as the author says, a remarkable if not unique circumstance.

* "Transatlantic Sketches," Grenville J. Chester, B.A., 8vo., London, 1869.

29. The desire of the American people to extend their territory, immense as it actually is, and especially their anxiety to secure a *pied à terre* in some part of the West India Archipelago, cannot reasonably be doubted, nor is it of recent growth, for it is strongly associated with their avowed jealousy of the existence, upon the Western continent, of a community in political connection with any European power. It is true that the negotiations for the acquisition of the Danish Islands have for the present fallen through, but this is no proof that the determination to carry out such a policy is even weakened, much less abandoned; and if the purchase of Alaska was sanctioned, of which the object and value could be only and exclusively political, it is most unlikely that any opportunity of establishing themselves in positions offering much more varied attractions and advantages will be neglected. As there may be those to whom this idea may appear far-fetched and chimerical, I make two or three quotations from the communications of the *Times'* Washington Correspondent. In January, 1869, "the House of Representatives at Washington had an interesting debate upon the subject of acquiring possession of various West India Islands. It resulted in a decision not to pursue the matter further; but is important in showing how firm a hold the idea of possessing the entire American continent has taken upon a good many of our political leaders."

Again, "Mr. Sumner believes, however, that both Cuba and Canada will be peaceably annexed to the Union within ten years, and that we shall also absorb Mexico, the West Indies, and the whole North American continent."

In May, 1870, "the President expresses his conviction that San Domingo will be annexed, and that if put to the vote at this moment there would be the two-thirds majority in the Senate required, and one or two to spare."

I may also recall the verbal passage-at-arms between Earl Granville and Mr. Reverdy Johnson at the inaugural banquet of this Institute; and as collateral testimony to the fact that such a possible contingency has attracted attention in other quarters, I append to this paper an article which appeared in the course of last year in a leading Canadian newspaper.* (Appendix D.)

* I may add that since the foregoing portion of this paper was written, the negotiation for the lease by an American Company of the Bay of Samana, in San Domingo, has been carried out to a successful issue, thus effecting the object so much at the heart of the Executive Government of the States, without involving them in any actual political responsibility—unless it should be found at any time hereafter desirable to assume it: it is, in short, the insertion of the thin edge of the wedge. (Appendix E, F.)

80. It would probably be argued that as material benefits will doubtless accrue to all populations which may come under American domination, we ought rather to wish them God-speed than repine at their progress, and such a sentiment would no doubt be in entire accordance with doctrines which tend to raise or depress all nations alike to one uniform and equal level, so far as human agency can compass such an end; but looking at it from the rightful standpoint of our national position, the question must be regarded very differently, for we are, or ought to be, able to do all our American kinsmen can do, and it is our assigned privilege and our peculiar duty to do it. The world has never seen an Empire to be compared with that which might exist under the benign sway of Victoria, and be handed down, not merely with undiminished splendour but with the elements of ever-expanding greatness, to her descendants, if the sound and true policy of cherishing and extending the settlement of her energetic and enterprising people in distant lands had been honestly and firmly carried out; "lengthening her cords and strengthening her stakes," in lieu of discountenancing in every way the establishment of new branches of the national family, lest, forsooth, these should entail upon the parent State some inconvenient responsibilities in regard to our foreign relations. I am quite sensible that such views are very old-fashioned, if not obsolete; but for my own part I fully share in the strong hope expressed by a quaint and amusing writer, now perhaps well-nigh forgotten, that "the national feeling which has so long kept us a distinct people in all our habits, feelings, and principles, may long continue to be cherished; and that the sound and sufficient sentiment of love of country may never be laughed out of countenance by the vain and visionary nonsense of universal philanthropy."*

81. There is something so attractive and, in the abstract, so sound, in the principle of federation, that it is not surprising its application should have been contemplated in relation to the West India Islands. There are, no doubt, substantial difficulties in the way, although it would be rash indeed to infer that they must always prove insuperable. For example, the great essential need of most of these possessions is population. Barbadoes, on the other hand, has a redundant population, but is by no means willing to part with any except such as would be scarcely more acceptable elsewhere. But Barbadoes would certainly, and not unreasonably, be averse to assume any portion of the cost of providing her sister but poorer Colonies with the labour they so much require; indeed she

* Matthews' "Diary of an Invalid." London, 1820.

seems to object to affording any facilities for the admission of competitors to her own labour market, in the face of facts which point distinctly to the rapid approach of the time when her area will be inadequate to the maintenance of her people. Upon this subject, however, I propose to include in the Appendix an abstract of a very interesting and carefully prepared Report of Governor Rawson, recently made public. Again, the political and judicial constitutions of these Colonies are so various that fundamental changes must be effected before the general application of any uniform system could be substituted. Allusion has been already made to the existence of a federal legislature in the Leeward Islands towards the close of the seventeenth century; an attempt was made to revive that arrangement by a late distinguished and philanthropic Governor,* about thirty years ago: he failed in the attempt, from local opposition, but was, nevertheless, so satisfied of its expediency, that he repeated the experiment when subsequently entrusted with the government of the Windward Islands; he, however, had to relinquish office before his efforts bore fruition, and his successor did not adopt his views. The present Governor-in-Chief of the Leeward Islands has been more successful, an Act "for the federation and general government of the Leeward Islands," having received Her Majesty's assent and come into operation. The provisions of the Act are sufficiently simple and abundantly comprehensive; its principle is distinguished from that of the original federation Act mainly in that it practically neutralises the autonomy of the several communities, whereas that was specially reserved and protected by the Act No. 28 of 1705, intituled, "an Act to settle general councils and assemblies for the Charibb Islands, in America, and to secure to each particular island its own peculiar laws and legal customs." Time alone can show the results of the practical working of this scheme, which is after all only an expansion of the idea embodied in the commissions constituting a Governor and Commander-in-Chief of each of the two groups denominated respectively the Windward and Leeward Islands. With regard to judicial matters also, attempts have been made at the instance of the Home Government to establish Circuit Courts, but with only partial

* "Sir William Colebrooke once attempted such a congress in these islands, without superseding the local legislatures, in hopes of introducing some degree of homogeneity of ideas and concert of action in general concerns; and the very first object of statesmanship, in governing little adjacent communities of various origin, particularly when the mass of the people is of inferior race, is to use every means to simplify, assimilate, and, if possible, identify, their codes of law."—*Sir C. B. Adderley, "Review of Col. Produce and Col. Hist.,"* Lond., 1869, pp. 294-9.

success, as it has not been found practicable to embrace in such a scheme Colonies originally settled by foreign nations, and administered under such dissimilar codes, as, for instance, British Guiana, Trinidad and St. Lucia; with Barbadoes and other "settled" Colonies. Courts of Appeal, consisting of the Chief Justices of the several Colonies, have, however, been established in the Leeward, and I think also in the Windward Islands.

82. In speculating upon the future of these Colonies, the prevalent absenteeism of large proprietors interposes some difficulties which would not otherwise exist. The bulk of the populations are of races naturally excitable and unsteady, prone to be led away by, and to give their support to, those who least deserve their confidence. An illustration of this may be adduced in the outbreak in St. Lucia, induced by French socialist intriguers from Martinique after the Revolution of 1848; and another in the riots having for their object the expulsion of the Madeiran settlers from British Guiana in 1856, originated by a fanatic whose ostensible motive was abhorrence of the Roman Catholic faith. Perhaps one of the most effectual methods of training the people for gradual elevation in the social scale would be by familiarising them with local self-government, and some progress has been already made in that direction by the incorporation of some municipalities, and in British Guiana also, by the institution of Boards of Superintendence of the numerous villages in the rural districts; but the prevalent indifference throughout the communities to the exercise of the franchise, both legislative and municipal, is very remarkable. Amongst other efforts to induce the peasantry to look forward to the acquisition of higher and more permanent interests in the soil, may be instanced the introduction of the *métayer* system of agriculture, and the suggested establishment of central factories for converting the cane-juice into sugar. The first-mentioned was tried in Guiana as well as in some of the Islands, but as the result was, to the best of my knowledge, failure in all alike, I may content myself with briefly stating, as regards the continental colony, that out of thirty-one estates upon which it was tried, it was only even partially successful upon four. I am not personally aware of the practical application hitherto of the experiment of central factories in any British Colony, although they exist in both Martinique and Guadaloupe, and I am not sure that a somewhat similar establishment has not been in operation in Barbadoes. In the Islands, speaking generally, I conceive that they would probably be attended with great success, and it is matter of gratification to notice that the proposal to form a Company for the

establishment of a central factory for the Leeward Islands seems to be received with marked favour in Antigua, and that it is even considered possible that by the time the crop of 1873 is ready to be reaped, one central factory at least will be ready to aid in its manufacture. A French Company is stated to be willing to advance the capital necessary for the erection of a central factory in Martinique,* if a guarantee can be given of sufficient canes to manufacture 3,000 hogsheads of sugar. Many other experiments are being constantly tried with various degrees of success; and all such are of great value, especially in so far as the endeavours tend to encourage a disposition on the part of the small freeholders to cultivate canes on their own account, to be converted into sugar at such establishments.†

88. A very valuable and interesting report upon the working of the Central Sugar Factory System in the French Islands appears in the *Antigua Observer* of August 24th, 1872, and will be reproduced in the Appendix G. It is a gratifying feature of the report that upon the whole the Demerara process of sugar manufacture is regarded by the Commissioners as better adapted to the peculiar needs of Antigua than that of the French usines. I am not so sanguine as to the profitable adoption of the scheme in regard to

* The subjoined returns of some of the usines in Martinique, for the year 1872, is extracted from the *West Indian*, Barbadoes newspaper:—

Usine.	Capital.	Tra. Sugar.	Results per cent.
Marino	£34,000	2,100	7·92
Robert	56,000	2,700	7·15
Simon	30,000	1,900	8·05
Petit Bourg	48,000	2,500	7·03
François	48,000	2,900	7·67

In the first-named usine the planter was allowed 6 per cent., and the dividend was 21 per cent.; on the next three the planter was allowed $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of sugar on the cane, and the dividend was 20 per cent; in the last the planter was allowed 5 per cent. and the dividend amounted to 34 per cent., attributable to the larger quantity of sugar made, and the smaller per centage allowed the planter.

† In connection with this subject I find by the most recent papers that a commencement is about to be made of the establishment of central factories under favourable auspices in Trinidad. The *Chronicle* says: "We are glad to hear that some neighbouring planters intend sending their canes to the great central factory at Petit Morne, when it is ready for grinding, which it is expected to be in April; and other large proprietors are looking forward hopefully to the result of the undertaking, intending, if successful, to erect mills themselves. The Petit Morne Factory is not intended to be confined to working up the Colonial Company's canes only, but to be a genuine central mill, buying from all comers so far as its capacity allows, after working up the Company's own canes. The Colonial Company have lately bought another adjoining estate, whose canes are to be worked up by the great usine. One gentleman has sole charge of the cultivation and another of the manufacture, thus separating, as far as possible under the same ownership, the processes of culture and manufacture."

Guiana, because the capital already invested in the manufacturing plant of each estate is so large that it cannot be expected they should be dismantled for such an object. There are, however, even there, tracts of land interspersed throughout the region of estates in cultivation which, if again taken up, might conveniently test the applicability of the system.

34. Amongst a variety of projects for promoting the prosperity of the West Indies, I can here merely glance at the scheme of a United West India Government and Joint Stock Company, which emanated from Jamaica in 1849; and a seemingly more practical suggestion by Captain Elliot,* sometime Governor of Bermuda, for applying a system of landed credit adopted in Germany and France to the relief of embarrassed owners of property in the West Indies; to which may be added the West Indies Encumbered Estates Act, carried into operation in several of the Islands.

35. It has long been the fashion in various quarters to be excessively and acutely critical upon the alleged inertness and backwardness of West India planters. So far as my own observation and experience qualify me to form an opinion, I utterly deny the applicability of the accusation.† When an estate is in the hands of a mortgagee, the owner cannot of course introduce expensive improvements into the processes of either agriculture or manufacture without the concurrence of the controller of ways and means; but men possessed of capital have expended their wealth without stint in any and every way calculated to improve the value of their properties, and this not unfrequently when their outlay would have been elsewhere and otherwise invested with far more certainty of yielding them the profit to which they were honestly entitled. In the ten years ending with 1866 the declared value of machinery‡

* A. Cochut on "Landed Credit," Bermuda, 1852.

† But this is mildness itself compared to some of the published compliments applied to the proprietors of West Indian estates, *ex. gr.* "The planters swear by the bar sinister on their escutcheon, and glory in their shame. Absolute control and irresponsible authority over men and women is their special *penchant*, and it would seem that life in the tropics would be intolerable without the luxuries of oppressive taxation and the monotonous tragedies of groans and blood. No vampire loves blood more than a West Indian." The pamphlet in which the sentences composing this paragraph occur was written about a dozen years ago by a gentleman who prefixes the title of "Reverend" to his name. According to the tenets of this school it has been well said, in commenting upon this passage, by an able writer, since deceased, "Take the best man in England; make him proprietor of a West Indian estate; let him devote his energies to sugar-planting, and he becomes a moral monster, whom it is impossible to mention without vituperation: a Sardanapalus grafted on a Domitian."

‡ The steam plough and steam dredging machines have been tried in British Guiana; and, in the very full and interesting Report of the Administrator of St. Lucia for 1870, he mentions the introduction, at the expense of an enterprising resident proprietor, of a steam irrigating machine.

imported into British Guiana alone, free of duty, was nearly £400,000, and in the subsequent five years ending with 1871 it amounted to £888,384, making a total of £757,228, or upwards of three quarters of a million sterling ; and it is worthy of notice that the value of the imports for the latest five years nearly equalled that of the imports for the previous decade.

86. My own recollection goes back to the period when 10-gun brigs carried the correspondence between the mother-country and these Colonies, and the mails were conveyed intercolonially by schooners ; after this a man-of-war steamer was occasionally employed ; then came the contract service performed by the Royal Mail Steam Packet Company, of which for many years it retained the monopoly ; but now we have not only their immensely improved and really splendid ships, but the French and Germans compete with mail lines, and private enterprise has entered the lists with more than one line of regularly appointed steamers which effect a communication between Great Britain, the West Indies and South America, and the United States. Many other attempts have been made from time to time to establish direct steam communication between the United States, the West Indies, and South America, but hitherto without permanent success. From local newspapers, however, I learn that the Government of the Dominion of Canada have taken some action in regard to overtures which have been made by the Colonists of British Guiana for the establishment of a line of steamers to run fortnightly between Halifax and British Guiana *via* Barbadoes. The amount of subsidy asked for by the promoters appears to be sufficiently reasonable, being only \$60,000 per annum, of which the Dominion undertakes to be responsible for one half, leaving the quotas of each of the other flourishing communities only \$15,000, or little more than £3,000 sterling. British Guiana has, moreover, actually subsidised one of the lines above alluded to. Direct efforts have been more than once made to cement a union of interests between the Dominion of Canada and the British West Indian Colonies, but considerations of Imperial policy have hitherto interposed obstacles which it is to be hoped will not much longer prove insurmountable.

87. As additional illustrations of the increasing importance and advancement of our Western intertropical possessions, may be quoted the establishment of Colonial contract steamers and of local railways—a project for one is at this moment revived in Barbados—and the recent completion of telegraphic communication between them and this country, although as yet but very imperfectly developed ; the institution of local mutual fire and life

assurance societies; the introduction of works for supplying many of their chief towns with water and with gas; the holding of local exhibitions of natural and of manufactured products; and the fact that in no instance, so far as I can recall, have they failed to redeem to the very letter every public financial obligation they have incurred.

38. Upon the whole, taking a retrospective view of the history of the West India colonies for five-and-thirty years, there is substantial ground for congratulation in the evidence afforded, with some few exceptions, of progressive material and moral improvement in spite of many drawbacks and difficulties: the shock of emancipation—combined with the withdrawal of protection and the admission of slave-grown produce upon equal terms after coerced labour had been abolished in our own possessions, with the obstacles interposed in the way of obtaining supplies of labourers, and with vexatious special fiscal restrictions upon their peculiar trade—was violent enough to make them “reel and stagger, and be at their wits’ end,” but they have given ample proof that they are no unworthy members of the Imperial body-politic in intelligence, in energy, and in loyal adherence, through evil report and through good report, to the Crown which claims their allegiance. And though it may not be questioned that the horizon of the future is far from cloudless, or that many causes exist for grave anxiety on the part of those entrusted with the guidance of their affairs, we may indulge the hope that they will not be without the encouragement and support of that cordial sympathy and generous feeling on the part of their fellow countrymen which they so abundantly deserve.

STATISTICAL CH

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TION.	AREA.	TONNAGE. IN & OUT.	EDUCATION.		SAVINGS BANKS.	
			SCHOLARS.	COST.	DEPOSITORS.	AMOUNT.
	Square Miles.			£	£	£
506,154	4,256	428,418	on roll 35,457 average 21,708	Gov. 11,778 Local 24,144	3,026	105,478
				35,922		
193,491	76,000	441,428	15,553 8,999	18,096 3,690	5,806 of whom	100,996 of which by
				21,786	Immigrants 2,766	Immigrants 58,667
24,710	9,000	50,622	1,602 829	892 352	103	\$10870.44
				1,244		
161,594	166	297,407	13,321 8,462	4,000 1,590 825	1,301	
109,638	1,754	305,807	5,424	6,415 7,566		
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				1,749		
37,795	133	24,927	2,053	1,265 167		
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31,811	250	29,635	1,417	580 1,203		
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27,585	290	19,160	1,273 654	750		
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39,162	3,021	159,708	4,651 2,156	2,200	163	
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In submitting the accompanying Statistical Chart, I desire to explain, that whilst believing the general results to be stated with sufficient precision for the object of estimating the relative importance of this group of our Colonial Dependencies, I cannot undertake to vouch for the literal accuracy of the several Returns, although I have taken all possible pains to be free from error. It need be scarcely observed that there is a want of uniformity in making up statistical documents which renders the task of the compiler frequently very difficult under certain heads; and I have in some instances found that the statements in the Blue-Book tables and in the accompanying reports do not quite agree, owing most likely to the writers possessing a local knowledge of the incidence of the facts stated, which enables them to present them in a more correct aspect. Perhaps one advantage to be derived from the inevitable imperfections of such a table as this may be to indicate some points in which it will be desirable for the officers who compile these very valuable and interesting records to agree upon some uniform principle of stating the facts, and which would lead to the like result in the commentaries prepared by the administrators of the Governments, by whom they are transmitted to the Secretary of State. It is, however, right to remark that within the range of my personal acquaintance with such records, the improvement they indicate upon their precursors of five-and-thirty years ago is remarkable and most gratifying; and whilst it would be presumptuous and invidious to specify particular instances, the like testimony may be safely borne to the higher character of the Reports on the condition and progress of these Colonies, furnished by the respective Governors.

I am under the impression that there are those in this country to whom it will be something new to learn that the aggregate values of the imports and exports of these Dependencies amount to £15,500,000, and their revenues and expenditures to nearly £8,000,000, whilst they give employment to 1,000,000 tons of shipping. Even in the comparative statements of the exports of the mother-country for the years 1871 and 1872, the British Possessions in the West Indies made no discreditable figure, the value of the goods exported to them being for 1872, £3,435,406, against £3,109,167 in 1871, showing an increase of £326,239.

Moreover, it was computed in the same article that the proportion of advance in the exports to British Possessions was 18 per cent., as against 13 per cent. in relation to foreign countries. Perhaps in time it may come to be believed that Her Majesty's subjects are each others' best customers all the world over.

I now proceed to offer a few brief comments upon the respective heads of the Chart, so far as appears to be desirable.

The revenues of all these Colonies are mainly derived from import duties, and there is a notable variety in the rates of duty imposed in each upon the same class of goods. This fact at once suggests the idea that by means of a federal union, for example, a desirable uniformity in this respect might be readily achieved; but it should be borne in mind that each of these communities, however small, calculates its own requirements of revenue according to its local needs, and has certain reasons or grounds, more or less substantial, for levying the particular imposts upon which it mainly depends: on the other hand, if the proceeds of all such sources of revenue were collected and paid into a common chest, the necessary appropriations could be made in proportion to local demands.

In Jamaica, the amount stated as revenue for 1871 includes an export-tax, levied specially together with a capitation-tax for immigration, but it does not include a sum of £80,000 raised by way of loan for the same purpose. The ordinary revenue is raised from import duties, light dues, excise, trade licenses, stamps, land-tax on main roads, new property-tax, parochial road-tax, house-tax, tax on dogs, post-office, and miscellaneous. The financial year is calculated from 1st October to 30th September.

In British Guiana, where the gross revenue amounted to £879,647, a sum of £8,124 is included as arising from abatements on salaries of public officers towards the provision of superannuation allowances on retirement. The ordinary sources of revenue are import and wine and spirit duties. Beacon and tonnage duties, duties on rum, and licenses to retail spirits, with other licenses; office fees, taxes, fines and seizures, interest, establishments under Government, and miscellaneous. It deserves notice that in this Colony the duties on some articles of primary necessity have been largely reduced or altogether abolished; for instance, dried fish has been reduced from 50 c. to 5 c. per cwt.; wheat-flour \$1 to 10 c. per barrel; on building lime, duty abolished; rice the same, salt the same. In a Colony where labour is so costly, it is obviously sound policy to endeavour to cheapen the cost of subsistence, and thereby indirectly encourage the voluntary

immigration of agricultural labourers. The financial year is here computed from 1st July to 30th June.*

In British Honduras, in addition to the tariff of import duties, the gross revenue—the largest ever raised in any one year—was augmented by a new tax on landed property, and an additional import duty of 6 per cent., *ad valorem*, to expire 31st July, 1872. The financial year is here calculated from 1st April to 31st March.

In Barbadoes the gross revenue is chiefly derived from import duties, tonnage and port dues, militia-tax, rum duties, liquor licenses; the items of timber, hoops and staves, malt liquor, spirits and tobacco were doubled at the beginning of the second quarter of the year. A sum of £684 appears to have been received under the Superannuation Act, but this, as the Governor remarks, can scarcely be accounted as available revenue. Including £29,059 of local or parochial taxation, the Governor estimates the proportion of taxation per head of the population at 18s. 4½d. Whilst, however, quoting the statement in this and other instances where given by the local authorities themselves, I have abstained from attempting to submit any general or comparative statement of this nature, which, without extremely minute and complete analysis of the data in respect to each Colony, must necessarily be fallacious and misleading. With respect to Trinidad, it should be explained that the amount returned as gross revenue includes a sum of £7,741 6s. received and expended on account of tramways, leaving a net amount of £264,352. The general system of taxation underwent no change in 1871, but the export duties levied for immigration purposes were increased from 8s. to 7s. 6d. per hogshead on sugar, and from 7½d. to 1s. 6½d. per 100 pounds on cocoa. Import duties, rum duties, wharfage duties, licenses, interest, income-tax, land-sales, and miscellaneous, constitute the leading items of revenue.

St. Vincent is another instance in which the revenue for 1871 is reported as being the largest raised for many years, if not, indeed, unprecedented in the history of the Colony. The ordinary revenue amounted to £24,154, and the taxes levied for the maintenance of the garrison to £5,996, making together £30,150; for immigration there was raised in addition £1,771, and the local revenue of the town of Kingston is given at £707. Customs' duties form the chief element of ordinary revenue.

The constituents of general revenue in Grenada are specified as Customs, tonnage, excise, licenses, fees and fines, post-office,

* Whilst revising this sheet, I learn that the duties on fish and flour have been re-imposed, whilst the rate of *ad valorem* duty has been reduced from 10 per cent. to 5 per cent.

assessed taxes, and miscellaneous. Local and special revenues are raised for immigration, water-rate, harbour dues, education, streets, the post-office, public lands, and the Port of Grenville. The general revenue for 1871 was slightly less than in 1870.

In Tobago the general revenue improved in 1871, by comparison with 1870, to the amount of £1,764. Import duties appear to have been increased, perhaps provisionally, by 40 per cent., and, with this augmentation, constituted about two-thirds of the gross revenue.

Like St. Vincent, St. Lucia received the largest revenue ever raised in the island, without any change of taxation; the sources are specified as Customs, roads and bridges, immigration, education, casual, and harbour dredging fund. The assessment for education is in addition to a contribution from the general revenue. The augmentation of receipts is partly ascribable to the clearing off stocks of tobacco, in anticipation of a rise in the duty to take effect in 1872.

In Dominica the comparison of 1871 with the preceding year shows a decrease nearly corresponding in amount with that indicated in the case of Grenada; the decreases were in import and export duties, liquor and distillery licenses, fines and forfeitures, rent of ordnance property, and miscellaneous; on the other hand, there were increases in tonnage dues, excise of rum, and miscellaneous; the lower returns from exports are partly ascribed to the abolition of duty on firewood. There is no Report accompanying the Blue-Book for Antigua, but the Governor-in-Chief states that there is improvement in the finances and trade. As compared with 1870, 1871 shows an increase of revenue amounting to £3,707. The sources of general revenue are import duties, land-tax, duties on rum and molasses, tonnage duties, excise duty on spirits, taxes on trades, professions, and businesses; on wheeled conveyances, licenses, stamp duties, market tolls, fines and forfeitures.

In the case of St. Kitt's, also, no report for 1871 has been received. The gross revenue for the years 1871 and 1872 closely corresponds in amount as in other instances; the principal item is import duties, followed by export duties, license duties, tonnage duties, and miscellaneous, such as fines and forfeitures, post-office receipts, &c.

In Montserrat the revenue is gathered from import and export dues, tonnage duties, land and house tax, horse-tax, commutation for statute labour, stamp duties, excise of rum, spirits, and wine retail licenses; other licenses; fines and forfeitures, and miscellaneous. In 1870 the duties on wheat-flour and corn-meal appear to have been repealed, and in 1871 these were followed

by the tonnage dues and export duties, whilst the *ad valorem* duty on non-enumerated goods was lowered from 10 to 7½ per cent. The Administrator reports the rate of taxation per head as 9s. 1d. The amount of revenue actually raised was less than in 1870, but the balance in hand for that year increased the total to a more than equal sum.

Nevis, like Antigua and St. Kitt's, is not illustrated by any report for 1871; the revenue for that year, however, was about £300 less than in 1870.

In the Virgin Islands, import duties, licenses to wreckers and others, taxes, post-office, fines and forfeitures, registration of deeds, and miscellaneous items, represent the main sources of revenue; and for 1871 the total shows an increase over that for 1870.

The income of the Bahamas for 1871 represents a total considerably less than for the preceding year, but it is explained that this is owing to a change in the term of credit allowed for the payment of import duties, which having formerly been six months was reduced to one month, and hence benefited the revenue of 1870 with what would, under the pre-existing arrangement, have appeared to the credit of the balance-sheet for 1871. An additional rate of import duties to the extent of 25 per cent., originally levied in 1869, has been continued in force until the 1st February of the current year.

The general receipts of the Turks' and the Caicos Islands for 1871—derived from import duties, and export duty on salt and dyewoods, light dues, and miscellaneous—exhibit an increase of upwards of £640, as compared with 1870, but the last-mentioned year was aided by a loan of £2,000 and a contribution from the crown chest of £891; the total amount of crown revenue in 1871 was £1,989 18s. 5d., and it is appropriated to works of public utility in the Colony. It may be remarked that whilst these Islands have for many years been severed from the Government of the Bahamas and annexed to that of Jamaica, it is in contemplation to place them in still closer dependence upon Jamaica, and to largely reduce their civil establishment; an Act of Parliament conferring the necessary powers has been passed in the present session of Parliament.

In concluding these remarks on the sources of revenue accruing to the several Colonies of which I am writing, I may add that it would be an interesting addition to append a comparative table of their various tariffs of import duties, including the rate of *ad valorem* duty on non-enumerated goods, but this I fear cannot be completed in time for publication with this Appendix.

The nature of the charges on the general revenues of these Colonies necessarily varies much in accordance in their position in the political scale. In Jamaica, for example, in addition to the ordinary items of civil, judicial, revenue, ecclesiastical, medical, educational, police, and prisons, there are items for the maintenance of the Botanic Garden, and for subsidising steam communication to New York, the total amounting to £976,798; there is also a charge of about £3,400 for "Military," which is explained to represent an allowance to the troops in lieu of Customs' duties formerly refunded to the canteen-keepers, so that it is practically merely a nominal charge. The outlay for the ecclesiastical staff is in process of gradual extinction, whilst the provision for education is increased by a corresponding sum. Although the parochial system has been long established in the island, it appears that provision for the relief of the poor is made from the general revenue, as an item of £28,222 appears in the account of 1871 against £27,250, indicating a saving of £4,298, or, as stated in the accompanying Report, £5,740—a seeming discrepancy, which illustrates the difficulty of being quite assured of the accuracy of the figures quoted.

In British Guiana, in addition to the fixed establishments enumerated in the case of Jamaica, the provision for hospitals, including asylums for the aged and infirm poor, lepers, lunatics and orphans, figures for upwards of £46,000.

British Honduras partly contributes to the maintenance of its garrison at the rate of £40 per man per annum.

In Barbadoes the expenditure for 1871 was largely in excess of that for 1870, and amongst the items are found a vote for vaccination, another for the census, and two grants of public money in aid of the sufferers by fire at Pointe à Pitre in Guadeloupe, and of the sufferers by the hurricane in the Leeward Islands, amounting together to £8,600. This amount appears to have been supplemented by voluntary contributions to the extent of £1,426. In this island the parochial system has always existed, and the local sources of revenue yielded in 1871, £22,265, with which the expenditure was as nearly as possible identical. The charge for maintenance of the poor was £7,658; education averaged £1,450; and maintenance of the Churches, £2,500 per annum.

In Trinidad an excess of expenditure, amounting to £2,405, is chiefly debited to the cost of taking the census and the purchase of a steam-dredger. Of the whole expenditure more than two-fifths is incurred for public improvements and in immigration—

the other leading items include hospitals and asylums, police and gaols, education, mail and telegraph services.

In St. Vincent £4,158 were expended by the town of Kingston, borrowed from the general revenue, for the construction of water-works. Nearly one-fifth of the gross expenditure is incurred by the Colony as its contribution towards the maintenance of the garrison.

The objects of expenditure in Grenada correspond closely with the leading ones of the other Colonies, namely, the support of the civil, judicial, and ecclesiastical establishments, education, police and gaols, relief of the poor, roads and buildings. There are, moreover, local revenues and special funds for specific objects, of which the foremost is immigration.

Nothing suggests itself for remark in relation to the expenditure of Tobago.

An excess in that of St. Lucia is explained by the cost of providing return passages to Calcutta for the remainder of the coolies entitled thereto; the cost of vaccination; grants in aid of the sufferers at Pointe à Pitre and the Virgin Islands. A subsidy also appears in aid of a coasting-steamer, by which communication between the different towns of the island was for the first time regularly maintained.

An item of £100 in aid of the sufferers at Pointe à Pitre appears in the disbursements of Dominica; also the cost of the census and grants to the Roman Catholics and Wesleyans. The total exhibits an increase of £828 in 1871, as compared with 1870. The expenditure of the Board of Health has been augmented by the necessity of providing separate hospital accommodation for the treatment of persons afflicted with that terrible disease, the yaws.

In Montserrat the provision for the public servants slightly exceeds that for the maintenance of the various establishments, which include the usual items, and also a small sum for quarantine purposes, and another for the census.

The necessity for repairing various public buildings injured in the hurricane of the preceding year led to an excess of expenditure in the Virgin Islands over 1870, but with all the drawbacks there was a balance in hand at the close of the year, available for 1872, amounting to £168, and it is confidently anticipated that this Colony will be shortly self-supporting. The Bahamas had at the close of 1871 a surplus revenue of £1,164; and a contract had been entered into for the conveyance of the mails fortnightly from November to May, and monthly during the remaining months,

between New York, Nassau, and Havana. The expenditure of the Turks' and Caicos Islands suggests no matter calling for observation.

A large proportion of the million and a half of the indebtedness of these Colonies has been incurred, as might be expected, for the purpose of adding to their labouring strength. In Jamaica, an additional loan of £30,000 was raised for immigration purposes, and charged upon immigration revenues, raising the sum at debit from £56,138 in 1870 to £84,169 in 1871. The public debt secured on the general revenues had, however, diminished by the judicious management of the executive from £609,505 in 1870, to £591,656 in 1871, and a considerable amount has been converted from debentures bearing 6 per cent. to similar securities at 5 per cent., showing the satisfactory position of the credit of the island.

The Public Debt of British Guiana stands at £512,864, being less than the aggregate amount at the close of 1870, by £69,558. Of the gross amount, however, the general revenues are only liable for the interest and redemption of £207,338; of this sum £130,000 is the balance of the original loan of £250,000 raised in 1850 under the guarantee of the Imperial Government—a species of assistance which has on all subsequent occasions been withheld. £80,000 of this balance will have been paid off on the 1st January last. The repayment of all outstanding loans is amply provided for.

The entire Public Debt of British Honduras amounts to £27,342 comprising a local improvement loan, balance £18,040, an immigration loan of £16,550, balance £6,897, and a debt to the Imperial Government for military assistance, balance £7,404.

Barbadoes is unburthened with any Public Debt, but if there be any soundness in the view of a French writer on Political Economy “plus qu'un pays a des dettes, plus il est riche et heureux,”* this may be a doubtful advantage.

Trinidad has had the benefit of a loan on the guarantee of the Imperial Government, of which the capital was originally £125,000: of this £40,000 were paid off in 1870, £60,000 becomes due this year, and the balance in 1874. On the 31st December, 1871, there stood at the credit of this loan £78,907 invested in Consols. A loan for erecting public buildings is also chargeable upon the public revenues, and £3,200 remain due of the original £16,000. There is, moreover, a tramway and highway loan, amounting originally to £108,510, of which a balance is outstanding of

* Klaproth.

£60,700. Of these loans the interest and sinking funds are secured partly upon local revenues and partly upon private estates benefiting by the improvements.

No Public Debt appears to exist in St. Vincent. In Grenada a loan of £7,000 for immigration purposes was raised in 1858 and at the close of the year 1871 the amount at credit in the funds was £6,876; practically, therefore, this Colony may be considered free from debt, as Tobago and St. Lucia also appear to be. Dominica was assisted in 1836 by the Imperial Government with a loan of £10,000 to help in repairing the damage sustained in the hurricane of 1824; up to April, 1871, £6,208 had been repaid, and, with interest, £6,426 remain due: the balance is expected to be repaid by annual instalments of £804 extending to 1881.

Antigua had at the close of 1870 an aggregate debt of £52,195, of which the waterworks-loan figures for £30,000, the savings-bank £9,000, and immigration £6,300; the investments for sinking fund reduce the nett balance due to £45,826.

St. Kitt's had recourse to a small loan of £9,200 to help the sufferers by fire in 1867, but only £8,000 appears to have been issued and £500 of the debentures were paid off in October, 1870.

Montserrat also was indebted to the Imperial Government for a share in the earthquake loan of 1843: the amount payable was £1,517 with interest at $3\frac{1}{4}$ per cent.

Nevis and the Virgin Islands are free from debt. The debenture debt of the Bahama Islands amounted in 1871 to £54,161, being the same as in 1869. Turk's Islands has a trifling debt of £2,700, paying interest at 8 per cent.

It will be interesting to give a general idea of the leading features of the importations of these possessions, those of their exports being of course very much the same in all cases. In Jamaica, the aggregate value of imports for the calendar year 1870 is given at £1,300,212, of which £760,431 are credited to the United Kingdom, and in the financial year 1st Oct., 1870, to 30th Sept. 1871, £1,331,185, the proportion of which from the United Kingdom is not given. It is, however, worthy of notice that the values of articles allowed to be imported free of duty for the manufacture of the staples has steadily increased for the last six years, being respectively for—

Calendar years	1866	£37,694
	1867	39,703
	1868	50,988
	1869	52,552
	1870	53,012
Financial year 1870-71	63,073

In 1870 British Guiana imported to the value of £1,897,098, whereof £997,580 was due to the United Kingdom. In 1871 the amount of the aggregate was almost identical, say £1,897,188, but the proportion from Great Britain was even higher, being £1,025,180; the difference was made up by importations from West Indian and North American Colonies, £840,816; from the United States, £429,144; and from other countries, £102,041. From the mother-country the Colony draws its chief supplies of bricks, butter, candles, coals, cordage, wood hoops, iron hoops, stooks, turpentine, malt liquor, machinery (valued in 1871 at £180,188) manure, opium (which figures for £24,448); oils and paints, tea, spirits, and wines, and non-enumerated articles paying 10 per cent. *ad valorem*. The United States contribute pickled beef, bread-stuffs, cheese, corn and pulse and oatmeal, dried fish, flour, lard, matches, horses and mules, lamp oil, pork, staves, tobacco, and, of course, a proportion of goods paying the *ad valorem* duty. The British Colonies furnish dried and smoked fish, timber, potatoes, and (including India) rice.

The general character of the exports from these possessions has been already indicated, but the subject possesses a peculiar interest in so far as the returns present indications of a disposition to vary the stereotyped form of "sugar, rum, and molasses," and the progress of Jamaica in this respect is, as has been before remarked, worthy of special notice. In his report for the year 1870, Sir John P. Grant states that the coffee crop was the largest known for upwards of thirty years, partly owing to the increasing attention paid to this cultivation by the small settlers—a most cheering and important fact. In regard to arrowroot, on the other hand, the decreased exportation from 70,204 lbs. in 1866 to 6,848 lbs. in 1870 and 5,820 lbs. in 1870-71 is explained by the great superiority in the home market of the Bermuda article, which reaches 1s. 2d. per lb. against 2½d. for that of Jamaica. And yet this great difference is ascribed less to any material nutritious superiority of the one over the other, than to the greater care bestowed upon the manufacture, the Bermuda arrowroot being of unimpeachable purity of colour: it is right to add that the deterioration of the Jamaica arrowroot is attributed to the use of water holding iron in solution for washing the roots. The same difficulty is alluded to by the late Dr. Shier, agricultural chemist to the Colony of British Guiana; who, however, suggested that by a chemical process, exceedingly simple, inexpensive, and easy of application, it would be possible to purify the water for the Artesian wells, and render it almost as fit as rain water for the

purpose of manufacturing starch. The export of this article from St. Vincent has also diminished in 1870 to 10,438 barrels, being a decrease on the previous year of 1,115 barrels; it, however, rose again in 1871 to 10,894 barrels. Amongst the other minor industries mentioned by the Governor as taking rank amongst the exports from Jamaica are lime-juice, and turtle preserved in tins. Cocoa has also steadily increased, rising from 138 cwt. in 1867 to 644 cwt. in 1870. Sir John Grant says, justly, that no cultivation would better answer the means and objects of the smaller settlers in the very numerous localities to which the plant is suitable. In Trinidad, which in this article takes the lead amongst the British West India possessions, the export of cocoa in 1870 reached 64,076 cwt., being largely above the average of the preceding ten years, which was 53,181 cwt. The price in the London market in June, 1871, was quoted at from 85s. for common to 180s. for the finest quality. Much importance, therefore, attaches to the selection of proper varieties as well as of suitable soils, and especially as the settlement of Crown lands by small proprietors is gradually enlarging, and most of such will probably engage in this cultivation. In Grenada also cocoa is becoming of increasing value, being in 1870, £50,406, and in 1871, £53,913. This island also exported 170 tons of cotton and about 11,000 gallons of whale-oil, the results of a branch of industry not so well followed up by our own countrymen as it might be: at least, I am under the impression that it is mostly in the hands of the United States people.

Sir John Grant goes on to indicate the growing importance of the trade between Jamaica and the United States in fruits and vegetables; bananas, cocoa-nuts, and oranges at present are the favourite fruits, and yams, an excellent substitute for the potato, the chief vegetable. Whilst Bahamas sends away pine-apples to London and New York to the annual value of £30,000 and upwards, the trade has practically no existence from Jamaica. The Governor, alluding to the haphazard sort of way in which the fruit is cultivated and shipped, expresses a doubt if a well-flavoured pine-apple can be grown in the latitude of Bahamas. I remember the earliest shipments of this fruit to London, and have often been struck by the unsatisfactory results exhibited in the costermongers' barrows in the streets of London. But I have no doubt whatever that pine-apples of size and flavour second to none can be produced in the Bahamas. More attention was even then there paid to the cultivation, by grafting, of oranges and other fruits, than I have since found in any part of the West Indies; for the difficulty of preserving this description of property from theft is, doubtless, most

discouraging ; all races seem to look upon fruit as common property, and will even steal it whilst unripe, sometimes to their unquestionable personal discomfort. In concluding this reference to the minor staples of Jamaica, it would be improper to omit all allusion to the energetic efforts making to utilise the Botanic Garden, and to establish various new species of valuable vegetable exotics. Two new species of ipecacuanha have been added to the solitary one previously existing. The valuable properties of this plant in cases of tropical dysentery, in which it is found to act almost as much as a specific as quinine in intermittent fever, renders it of inestimable value. Then, two true Mangosteens, five choice varieties of pine-apple, and four species of orange new to the island, have been imported. Two acres of sisal hemp were planted at Castleton during the year, and a sample of the fibre having been submitted to a London broker, it was pronounced to be finer and larger than the same article imported from Mexico, and worth, at the date, £60 per ton, or from £10 to £12 above the ordinary price. Another important fibre has been established, namely, China grass, of which 100,000 plants were advertised for sale, and about one-third were applied for. The local Government were awaiting the result of the premium offered by the Indian Government for a fibre-producing machine, and should this be successful, the supply of vegetable fibres to the home manufacturer from all or nearly all our West India possessions would be practically unlimited. The cinchona plantation continues to make most satisfactory progress ; and 800 plants of Assam tea, planted in 1869, are in vigorous health. Tobacco of fine quality will, it is expected, soon take rank as one of the great staple exports of the Colony. The export of bamboo, for paper-making, has risen from £854 to £2,074.

Having alluded in the body of the preceding Paper to the extraordinary development of the trade with the United States, it is right to remark, that in the interval since it was written the instability of the trade has been unpleasantly illustrated: in February last, we are informed, that "the American sugar-market is dull, and prices getting still lower ;" whilst the home market fully shares in the depression. But it is very interesting to trace in various Reports the endeavours making in various quarters to improve the quality as well as to increase the quantity of sugar. Sir John Grant states that not only is an astonishing extent of sugar cultivation carried on among the peasantry, but that cultivation among the large proprietors has been, in many instances, considerably extended. Irrigation is being adopted on a large

scale with gratifying results, and in one case the only vacuum-pan and centrifugal sugar-making apparatus has been established, with the effect of producing an article equal to the best Demerara crystallised sugar. This is said to be quite a new feature in the history of Jamaica sugar manufacture. With respect to the small freeholders, 5,615 small sugar-mills are said to be their property, and the average yield of sugar equivalent to two hogsheads; a large proportion of this is consumed in the island. Mr. Des Vœux, the Administrator of St. Lucia, in his comprehensive and interesting Report for 1870, indicates the extension of the area of cultivation of sugar, although he cannot point to any improvement in the quality of the produce. He dwells forcibly on the importance of this to the future prosperity of the Colony, and with this view he strongly urges the adoption of the French system of *usines centrales*, on which the co-operative system has been engrafted with most gratifying results. Steam power, it is deserving of record, is in this island gradually superseding all other appliances for grinding purposes. In 1870 fourteen steam-mills were imported, one-half of which replaced wind, water, or cattle power, whilst the remaining seven were destined for newly-opened estates. Apart from other means, it is quite possible for the St. Lucia planters to produce a higher quality of sugar by the application of science to the process of manufacture: the crop of 1871 was the largest ever produced in the island. British Honduras exhibits some specialities in its list of exports—cedar-wood, mahogany (showing a rather considerable falling off), logwood, cocoa-nuts, fustic and turtle. Of the exports of this Colony, however, in 1870, no less than £102,000 represented articles imported, against £70,000 value of Colonial produce; so in 1871, the total value of exports being £207,672, £101,810 represented local produce, and the balance the value of produce and manufacture in transit from Belize to the neighbouring states, exchanged for cochineal, coffee, hides, hemp, indigo, india-rubber, sarsaparilla, &c. During this year mahogany-cutting experienced a little revival.

Barbadoes boasts of no auxiliary produce beyond the ordinary staples, except a few articles, all of trifling commercial value, such as aloes, cotton, fruit and vegetables, sweetmeats, building lime, tamarinds, &c., and of her export trade no inconsiderable proportion consisted of goods re-exported: for example—in 1869, the aggregate value being given as £985,424, the transit trade figures for £287,444; in 1870, the total being £973,020, the transit trade is represented by £270,599; in 1871 it is credited with £819,429 out of £1,298,546.

Two-thirds of the exports are distributed amongst the West Indies and British Guiana. In 1871 the proportion of imports from the United Kingdom was 46 per cent.; from British Colonies, 12·5 per cent.; and from foreign countries, 41·5 per cent. In like manner, of the exports, 47·1 per cent. went to the United Kingdom, 32 per cent. to British Colonies, and 20·9 per cent. to foreign countries.

Trinidad reports a considerable increase in the exports of cocoanuts and cocoa-nut fibre. There are two factories which have been for some time established for the production of oil and fibre, and the material can be produced to any extent, but the want of population in the outlying districts, and also of shipping facilities, at present interpose obstacles to the extension of this industry. Of the entire area of the island eleven-twelfths are stated to be still uncleared.

In St. Vincent the sugar of 1871 was valued at £15 per hogshead, against £12 10s. for the previous year. Grenada is improving in the extent of land under cane, but no progress has been made in the processes of manufacture. Cocoa and cotton are the auxiliary products of this Colony. In Tobago, improvement is recorded in both the culture and the manufacture of the staple. Cocoa and a small proportion of coffee are included amongst the exports of Dominica. No information is given for the year 1871 with respect to Antigua, but from the report for 1870 it would seem that an impulse had been given by the civil war in the United States to the renewed production of cotton; it was, however, gradually failing, the quantities being for 1868, 651,000 lbs.; for 1869, 853,500 lbs.; and for 1870, only 163,981 lbs. Montserrat includes lime-juice amongst its principal articles of export; but there are only four or five sugar estates in the island that are efficiently worked, and these are favoured with increased returns. The proportion of imports into St. Kitt's for 1870 was 45·40 per cent. from Great Britain, 31·45 per cent. from the United States, 12·67 per cent. from British West Indies, 4·84 per cent. from British North America, and 5·64 per cent. from foreign countries. The value of the exports from the Virgin Islands somewhat increased in 1871, as compared with 1870, and this arose from larger exportation of live stock, salt, charcoal, cotton, and sugar. In this dependency wrecked goods figure largely both in the import and export lists. The Administrator of the Government of the Bahamas expresses the opinion that there are signs of an increasing trade, and of a disposition to extend the cultivation of the soil. A heavy import duty in the United States has tended

to depress the staple industry of the Turk's and Caicos Islands, but the Administrator anticipates a wholesome reaction under the new administrative arrangements now in progress for the closer union of the Colony with Jamaica.

Little needs be said with regard to the political constitutions of these dependencies, beyond the remark that there is a prevalent tendency to favour the simplification of the administrative agencies employed, and there cannot be a doubt that this is the right direction to be pursued. The constitution of British Guiana is quite peculiar, being derived with but little alteration from the Dutch; but it is found in practice to work well upon the whole, and so long as there is an overwhelming preponderance of the labouring class, and especially of Asiatic emigrants, it will be absolutely necessary to reserve considerable power in the hands of the Executive. In Trinidad the constitution has been considerably modified from that of the Spanish model which existed at the time of the conquest: so also in St. Lucia, where the previously existing French institutions have been superseded by English arrangements.

In the body of the paper I have alluded to the experiment now under trial of the Federal system of government initiated in the Leeward Islands by Sir Benjamin Pine. The second session has just concluded at St. Kitt's, and upon the whole it does not appear to have been exceptionally harmonious; as was to be anticipated, a great difficulty is found to be the adjustment of the relative privileges of the federal and local legislatures. In his Prorogation speech the late Governor-in-chief suggests as the best solution the establishment of a common treasury, and a common system of finance; but how far this may be acceptable to the influential inhabitants of each community remains to be seen. Amongst the valuable results of the Federal legislative deliberations, he alludes to preparation for the immediate establishment of Supreme and Circuit Courts; the institution of a simple mode of procedure both in law and equity; the enactment of a bankruptcy law, and a law for the protection of the property of absent and deceased persons; the establishment of a common prison for the Leeward Islands, and a law for simplifying the transfer of real property.

With regard to the population, Sir John Peter Grant expresses the opinion that the census of 1871 is, as respects Jamaica, a tolerably safe guide upon the questions of the increase of population; and he deduces the following results as to the proportionate rate, namely: in the seventeen years from 1844 to 1861, 16·91 per cent., and in the ten years from 1861 to 1871, 14·7 per cent.,

showing a largely increased ratio ; but it is to be remembered, that in the first-mentioned interval two epidemics of cholera and one of small-pox committed very great ravages, whilst during the latest decennial period no such cause has interfered with the natural increase of the population. The general results of 1871, as compared with 1861, show a decrease of 715 amongst the white race, and an increase of 19,281 in the mixed race, and of 46,838 in the negro race. The census returns include 7,793 Indian immigrants, but the Governor is of opinion that there were fully 9,000 in the Colony when the census was taken.

The increase in the "creole," or native population properly so called, of British Guiana, is estimated at something less than 10 per cent. in the last decade. The gross increase was from 93,861 to 113,570, but this includes upwards of ten thousand children born of Madeiran and Asiatic immigrants, in addition to a number not ascertained of children of Barbadian and other settlers. Of the total population of 193,491, 64,442 are immigrants of various races ; the European race figures for a trifle in excess of 2,000. There is a striking disproportion between the sexes, namely 108,791 males against 84,700 females, owing in great measure to the excess of males over females in the Asiatic immigration.

The proportion of deaths in 1871 of the entire population was 8.78 against 2.9 per cent. in 1870, although the Colony was free from any epidemic. Of the 7,324 deaths 2,680 were of children under ten years of age, showing 36.59 per cent. of the entire mortality. As hinted in the memoir, this great mortality is ascribed to insufficient and innutritious food, unwholesome lodging, insufficient clothing, bad water, and want of timely medical aid. Of the whole number of deaths nearly one-half are reported to have died without medical treatment. The number of children born was 3,660 boys and 3,522 girls, or 142 fewer than the deaths. The proportion of legitimate births was 2,150 ; but deducting the children of Asiatic immigrants, who cannot properly be included within the category of "illegitimate," the balance is represented by 3,895 ; a feature which will be found unpleasantly prominent throughout these provinces. The mean temperature of the year was 79°.40, and the year's rain-fall is registered at 109.730 inches.

The returns of baptisms, marriages, and burials in British Honduras cannot be depended upon ; but the census taken in December, 1871, shows a decrease of 925 in the preceding decade. There was no immigration during 1871, but many labourers left the Colony to work in Spanish Honduras and other places.

In Barbadoes the census was taken on the 2nd of April, 1871,

and, as intimated in the memoir, Governor Rawson has illustrated it by a copious analytical commentary. The percentage increase of population was in 1861, 12, and in 1871, only 6·1; but this slow rate was caused by an extensive emigration in the last decade. There is no registration of births and deaths in the island; but it has been ascertained that the natural rate of increase is at least from 2·7 to 2·8 per cent. annually, which would, under ordinary circumstances, have brought up the population in 1861 to 178,002, and in 1871 to 219,712, the actual number being 161,594. The heavy mortality from cholera in 1854 affected the results of both 1861 and 1871. Barbadoes is remarkable for the local character of its population, 98·3 per cent. being natives of the Colony; the original African element is, however, almost eliminated, there being only 62 in 1871, against 494 in 1861. The comparative percentages of the three principal divisions for 1861 and 1871 respectively are as under:—

			1861.	1871.
White	10·9	10·2
Coloured	23·6	24·4
Negro	65·5	65·4

In Barbadoes the preponderance of numbers is in favour of the female sex, being 88,589 against 78,005, or 54·8 per cent. against 45·2. It is worthy of notice that the proportions of the population above 50 years of age was 9·1 per cent. in 1871, against 8·8 per cent. in 1861. Between the ages of 21 and 40 the difference in the proportions of the sexes is 142 females to 100 males; the disproportion has increased since 1861; and the injurious influence of this upon morals and physical progress is pointed out, “especially in a country where amongst a large portion of the inhabitants it is esteemed no disgrace to have illegitimate children.” Contrary to what might have been assumed, very few of either sex are married before the age of twenty. Of the males 18,207, and of the females 22,622 are returned as “unemployed;” but the number of females engaged in agricultural labour largely exceeds that of males, being 28,828 against 18,947; and less than one per cent. of the population is engaged in fishing, which is also noteworthy. Nearly nine-tenths of the population are members of the Church of England. There were 4,850 houses of one room, and of these 1,816 were occupied by more than three persons, and 58 sheltered ten or upwards. There were 19,747 houses of two rooms, and 5,392 having three rooms or upwards.

The population of Trinidad by the census of 1871 amounted to 109,688, being an increase of 25,200 during the preceding decennial period. The excess of males was 11,172; the larger portion

of this being found, as was to be expected, amongst the Indian immigrants. Nearly three-fifths of the whole population are returned as natives of Trinidad; 24,280 represent Asiatic immigrants, exclusive of children born in the Colony; but there are only 605 Madeirans. As in British Guiana, the population is most unequally distributed over the surface; nearly one-third of its area having only a proportion of four to the square mile; whilst the districts including the two chief towns have 231. And also resembling that Colony, the varieties of nationalities are striking; but this applies even in a greater degree perhaps to Guiana than to Trinidad. Beside natives of the United Kingdom, we have Dutch, French, Germans, Portuguese, Americans, East Indians, and Chinese, Africans and the aboriginal inhabitants; and on some occasions it is possible to see illustrations of all gathered in the same concourse, the costumes of the Orientals, and the absence of costume of the last-mentioned race, lending character and interest to the scene.

The census of St. Vincent indicates the existence of 431—a not very imposing remnant—of the original Caribs; the proportion of Europeans seems large, amounting to 2,344, whilst Africans figure for 24,707, and the mixed blood is represented by 6,721; the balance of 1,485 is made up of Asiatic immigrants, and of the aggregate population the males were only 16,865 against 18,823 females. The net natural increase of the population during the preceding decade is calculated at about 10 per cent., some 1,500 immigrants having been introduced from India. The mortality of the male population is found to exceed that of the female in almost every stage of life. Exclusive of still born-children, the births for 1871 were 47 per 1,000, and the deaths 28 per 1,000; marriages show a slight increase, illegitimate births maintain the proportion of about 56 per cent.

In Grenada the birth-rate for 1871 was 4.50 per cent. and the death-rate 2.52 per cent.; the number of births registered was 1,730, and of deaths 971; the number of marriages solemnised was nearly identical with that of the preceding year, or 209.

The increase of population in Tobago in the decennial period was 1,644; this may be assumed to be the natural rate of progression, as an opinion is intimated by the Lieutenant-Governor that “an influx of immigrants would be beneficial, not only to the planters, but to the labourers themselves, who would be obliged by a wholesome competition to forego many of their idle habits.”

The census of St. Lucia gives rather more than 18 per cent. as the decennial increase of population over that of 1861, and the Administrator points out that as more people have left the Colony

than have come to it, the whole of this increase is a natural one. The equality in the proportion of increase in each sex is noteworthy, being 18.8 for males and 18.5 for females; the excess of females is much what it was in 1861, and hence the Administrator infers that the causes which produced it in the past, and still appear to operate in neighbouring Colonies, have disappeared from St. Lucia; the results justify Mr. Des Vœux' remark, that the reputation of the island for peculiar insalubrity appears to be without any adequate foundation.

Of the 27,178 persons composing the population of Dominica, the census taken in November, 1871, shows that there is an excess of females to the extent of 1,704; the total increase of population for the preceding decennial period being 2,118, or at the rate of 7.66 per cent. for males and of 9.11 per cent. for females. As a striking contrast to Barbadoes, here the great majority of the population are Roman Catholics, 24,000 out of the 27,000; the members of the Church of England only exhibiting 888 against 2,256 Wesleyan Methodists. The preponderance of Roman Catholics naturally arises from that system having been the religion of the original settlers, as well as of such of the inhabitants as migrated from time to time from Martinique. Even a larger proportion of the population is composed of natives of the island, who count for close upon 26,000, whilst only 55 are returned as of European birth. With respect to industrial pursuits, agriculture, as might be expected, bears the palm, being represented by 11,117 against 1,118 of the commercial class; of the balance 9,592 were children "under age," and persons unoccupied or living on their incomes.

Allusion has been made in the body of the Paper to some unsatisfactory features in connection with the condition of the population of Antigua. The census seems to have been taken in 1870, and the comments of the Colonial Secretary upon its results point to substantial improvement during the two or three immediately preceding years as contrasted with the experience of 1862, 1863, and 1864; the average death-rate for each of these years having been 46.8 per 1,000, whereas in 1870 it was only 34 per 1,000, whilst the birth-rate was 43 per 1,000. Of the births registered 841 were of boys and 757 of girls; the total number of illegitimate births was 63.6 per cent. of the whole number born. The marriage rate for the year was equal to 5.5 per 1,000 of the population. It results that the native population has decreased by 986 in the decennial period to which the tables apply: the causes assigned are an outbreak of small-pox in 1862, a severe

drought in 1863 and 1864, and the unwholesome condition of the numerous negro villages.

The population of St. Kitt's, according to the census taken in April, 1871, consisted of 13,259 males and 14,910 females, a total of 28,169, exclusive of about 2,500 occupying the dependency of Anguilla. In 1861 the population was 24,440, divided between 11,487 males and 13,003 females.

With regard to Montserrat the details, although not very full, are upon the whole satisfactory: the total population by the census of 1871 was 8,693 against 7,645 for 1861; in 1871 the births were 391 against 174 deaths; the birth-rate was 4.49 against a death-rate of 2.001 per cent. of the whole population. In the five years ended with 1871, the numerical excess of births over deaths was 800.

Nevis offers no particulars with respect to the constituents or progress of its population. According to the census of 1871 the total was 11,704 against 9,822 in 1861, divided between 4,526 males and 5,296 females. Immigration, upon a very moderate scale however, is suggested by the Colonial Secretary as urgently needed to prevent this fertile island from relapsing into difficulties.

The census of April, 1871, reported a total population for the Virgin Islands of 6,651, divided between 3,379 males and 3,272 females, against a total of 6,362 for 1861, representing 3,088 males and 3,274 females; the nett total increase for the decennial period being 289 souls. With respect to the progress of the races, there was a decrease of whites to no less an extent than 353, leaving only 123 in 1871 against 476 in 1861. On the other hand, the blacks had increased from 4,018 in 1861 to 4,565 in 1871, and the mixed from 1,557 in 1861 to 1,968 in 1871. Nearly one-half of the entire population are stated to be engaged in agricultural pursuits, and of the balance 1,572 are returned as children under 10 years of age. Wesleyan Methodists claim 5,418, and the Church of England comes next with 1,164. It will be observed, that whereas in 1861 there was an excess of 186 females, in 1871 the scale preponderated in favour of the males to the extent of 107: there is no influx of a male population, for emigration to the neighbouring islands is the rule; the explanation suggested is that the female population is visibly drained off, principally to St. Thomas. Amongst the causes of the 128 deaths which occurred in 1871 consumption takes the foremost place, representing 16 males and 22 females, or a total of 38; only 18 marriages are returned as having been celebrated in 1871, a number considerably below the average of the preceding ten years.

The census of the Bahama Islands was taken on the 2nd of April, 1871, and reported a numerical increase in the preceding decennial period of 3,875: the grand total of 1871 being 39,162 against 35,287, as given by the census of 1861. The relative proportions of births and deaths for the four years ending with 1871 appear to be of a somewhat remarkable character, being as follow:—

Years.	Births.		Deaths.	
1868	1469	..	718	..
1869	1469	..	706	..
1870	1483	..	775	..
1871	1433	..	805	..

But little can be added in regard to the progress and condition of the population of the Turk's and Caicos Islands, formerly a portion of the Bahama Government, but now annexed to that of Jamaica. In 1861 the population amounted to 4,372, and in 1871 it was 4,723, exhibiting a much slower rate of increase within that decade than in the preceding one from 1850 to 1861, it having been at the earlier date 2,350: prevalent want and distress leading to emigration is suggested as the cause of the difference.

As regards the head of "Tonnage," it may probably suffice to refer to the returns of one or two of the leading Colonies by way of illustrating the course of trade. The total entries and clearances in British Guiana for 1871 amounted to 441,428, against 409,365 for 1870: the distribution of the whole being represented in the following table:—

	Entered.		Cleared.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
United Kingdom.. ..	301	105,719	125	48,785
British West Indies ..	237	43,788	283	47,541
Other British Colonies	135	31,853	66	12,204
United States	148	31,309	233	53,512
Foreign States	181	18,306	291	48,411
Totals	1,002	230,975	998	210,453
Ditto for 1870	974	212,631	961	196,734

As regards Barbadoes, Governor Rawson furnishes exhaustive details, from which the subjoined particulars are gathered. As in the case of British Guiana, 1871 exhibits a satisfactory increase over 1870, namely, upwards of 5 per cent. in the total number of vessels and 7·5 per cent. in the tonnage. Divided into British and Foreign, the comparative numbers stand as under:—

	Number.		Tonnage.	
	1870.	1871.	1870.	1871.
British ..	1,025	1,071	97,442	104,962
Foreign ..	236	266	41,093	43,799
Totals	1,261	1,327	138,535	148,761

The increase in the trade in foreign vessels with the West Indies is more strongly marked in the vessels cleared than in those entered.

To West Indies and British Guiana:—

1870.			1871.		
	Number.	Tons.	Number.	Tons.	
British ..	875	57,970	878	57,481	
Foreign ..	180	30,727	200	48,072	

To other countries:—

1870.			1871.		
	Number.	Tons.	Number.	Tons.	
British ..	152	39,982	197	31,235	
Foreign ..	43	9,392	47	10,860	
Whalers ..	16	1,911	8	998	
Totals	1,266	139,982	1,330	148,646	

Twenty more vessels, chiefly under the United States' flag, averaging 240 in lieu of 170 tons and with an aggregate tonnage of 9,845, cleared from Barbadoes, chiefly to British Guiana, in the past year. It will be noted that in regard to whalers the number had diminished by one-half, but this obviously depends upon the number of fish in the Caribbean Sea. The per centage proportion of the total tonnage arrived in each of the two years from each country was as under:—

	1870.	1871.
United States	23	26
United Kingdom	17	23
British West Indies ..	16	17
British North America ..	10	11
British Guiana	10	9
Buenos Ayres	5	4
Peru	5	4
Foreign West Indies ..	3	4
Other Countries	11	2
Total	100	100

The proportion of tonnage of each nation was in 1871 nearly the same as in 1870, namely:—

British	70
American	21
French	4
Other Countries	5
	100

As regards British Honduras, the greatest amount of tonnage registered of late years is recorded for 1868, when 81,424 were entered and 80,911 cleared. For the succeeding years the figures are as under:—

	Entered.	Cleared.
1869	27,792	30,324
1870	28,102	26,624
1871	24,887	25,785

Of the gross tonnage inwards in 1871, 18,185 tons were British.

Considerable transit trade exists in this Colony, not only with the United Kingdom and the United States, but with the neighbouring countries of Mexico, Guatemala, Nicaragua, and Spanish Honduras. The commerce of Trinidad in 1871 engaged 860 vessels and an aggregate tonnage of 210,924, of which 567, with tonnage amounting to 125,828, were British.

The important subject of elementary education throughout the West Indies would require a separate article fully to explain its progress and condition; but I shall attempt as concisely as possible to abstract the details embodied in the several reports accompanying the Blue-Books, and which will, I think, abundantly bear out the statement in the paper as to the practical interest in the question manifested by the local Governments. I may premise, that during the lengthened period of Earl Grey's administration of the affairs of the Colonies, he urged upon the various legislative and other authorities, with characteristic earnestness and intelligence, the inestimable value of education as the best if not the only means of developing the newly enfranchised slaves into useful and orderly members of the community. With this view he issued in the year 1847 two circular despatches bearing especially upon the necessity of industrial training in the elementary schools. From the earlier of these, dated 26th January, I quote the following passages indicating the general scope of his Lordship's views:—

“It is impossible to look at the state of things in the West Indies, arising as it does out of unexampled changes, and tending, no doubt, to momentous issues of one kind or another, without perceiving that the education of the negro race is the great means by which emancipation may be made to result not merely in exemption from physical sufferings and brutalising oppressions, but in a moral and spiritual freedom resting on a stronger foundation than that of human laws, and comprehending an advancement in Christian virtues and happiness to which human laws can but very imperfectly contribute, except through the channel of education and religious instruction. . . . Instruction not only makes labour intelligent and orderly, but creates new wants and desires, new activities, a love of employment, and an increased alacrity both of the body and the mind; and there is probably no example of a well-instructed population which is not also active and eager for work.”

With this despatch Earl Grey transmitted a report from the Committee of Council on Education, suggesting a scheme of industrial training assumed to be adapted to the wants of the West

Indies. But from a subsequent circular despatch, dated the 29th September in the same year, it is obvious that but little progress had been made in the interval in the practical application of the Government recommendations, nor could this be at all surprising to any one possessing local experience, for the proposal to employ the children industrially in gardens, or provision grounds, and especially in the cultivation of the sugar-cane, roused the sensitive suspiciousness of the parents that it was a scheme to convert them into estates' labourers, and it was quite common to hear them declare that if the children were to work at all in the field, it should be for *their* benefit, and not that of the teacher! It was quite true that the Moravian missionaries in particular had succeeded in carrying out, upon a moderate scale, the industrial training of the children attached to their own schools; but it was a very different thing to apply such a principle in what were known as Government schools, and affecting the mass of the population. Again, Earl Grey had suggested, as the appropriate means of providing the necessary funds, the imposition of a school-rate and compulsory payment of school-fees by the parents, with an alternative penalty for neglecting the duty of sending their children to school. But in the later despatch, his Lordship frankly explained that he deferred to the considerations which had been submitted to him by Sir James M. Higginson, then Governor-in-Chief of the Leeward Islands, as operating against the expediency of such enactments, namely, that there were peculiarities in the negro character interposing obstacles to the success of any such plan, by generating feelings of suspicion or irritation in the mind of that race, tending to defeat rather than promote education. The preferable plan, in the estimation of Governor Higginson, of inducing the voluntary co-operation of the peasantry, by holding out the prospect of education becoming the stepping-stone to social and political privileges and advantages, commended itself to Earl Grey's approval, and he suggested as an illustration that the electoral franchise might by law be restricted to such as being otherwise qualified could read and write; but although, if my recollection does not deceive me, the propriety of insisting upon this qualification was discussed during the enactment of a law in 1849 for regulating the elective franchise in British Guiana, I am not aware that it has anywhere been actually adopted and enforced.

With these preliminary remarks, I proceed to show the general state of education in 1870 and 1871, taking the several Colonies in the same order as before. In Jamaica, in 1870, 371 schools were on the list for inspection, being an increase of 101 over the

previous year, and of these 829 were actually examined, showing an increase of 67 as compared with 1869. A great difficulty existed in the scarcity of competent teachers, and the rapidly increasing demand for them led to the establishment of a Government Training-college at Stoney Hill, in August, 1870. At present the building will only accommodate fifteen students at a time, they are required to be between eighteen and twenty-four years of age, and to be provided with certificates as to good bodily health and moral character, and they are expected to be well acquainted with the fundamental doctrines of Christianity. The College course is two years, which may be shortened in cases of proved special fitness. The students have to undergo a preliminary competitive examination in the rudiments of arithmetic, grammar, geography, and natural science; they are boarded and lodged at the public expense, and the only fees they are required to pay are £8 at the commencement of the first, and £2 at that of the second year, which are applied to the formation of a library. It is worthy of remark that industrial occupation constitutes an important feature in the training of these students, who have also the benefit of a school for children, in which they assist in daily rotation, thus acquiring familiarity with the art of imparting instruction to others. Nine other students are maintained at the Missionary Institution, and another Government training-school is in progress at Port Antonio, as a branch of a Government training model-school, conducted by a remarkably efficient native schoolmaster; here there are six additional students in training, making the total number thirty. The progress of elementary education during the year was also reported to be encouraging, inasmuch as a steady and rapid improvement was observable in every direction. The number of schools registered for examination reached 441, of which 408 were actually inspected; 33,843 scholars were enrolled, the daily attendance was 19,644, the number present at inspection was 23,821. But these figures do not of course represent the total amount of instruction being imparted, inasmuch as exclusive of about 160 private schools, there are in operation three other model-schools, with an average of 193; twenty-seven endowed schools with 1,755, and five normal schools with 116 pupils. It is interesting to note the rapid progress of expenditure for educational purposes from the public funds within the last few years, thus :—

1866-67	£3,987
1867-68	4,120
1868-69	6,424
1869-70	9,190
1870-71	11,778

Whilst the estimates for the same object for the current year amount to £17,670, including a vote of £2,000 for the preliminary expenses of a College expected to be opened, the total amount contributed from all sources for educational purposes is estimated at in round numbers about £36,000. The payment of fees, varying from 1½d. to 6d. per week, by the scholars is insisted upon in all State-aided schools, and experience has proved that wherever this condition is enforced, the schools are held by the parents in higher estimation than elsewhere; nor only so, but this feeling is the stronger in proportion to the amount of the fees exacted. The principle of introducing some industrial element into the schools is gaining strength, though but slowly. In one school, indeed, the indefatigable perseverance of the patron, the Rev. E. Barrett Key, has surmounted all opposition, and in addition to agricultural employment, carpentering, coopering, and bricklaying are taught to the children. A special grant has been very properly awarded to this school, and the same principle has been applied to the schools in which girls are taught sewing. Sir John Grant closes his interesting Report with the remark that what has been the main cause of the rapid success which has rewarded in Jamaica the exertions of all concerned, is the perfect and unbroken harmony in which all denominations have worked in the cause of education and civilisation.

A substantially similar opinion is expressed by the Inspector of Schools in British Guiana, who says: "I take this opportunity of expressing my conviction that it is mainly, if not entirely, owing to the exertions of the several religious bodies that our people possess educational advantages, which are now placed almost everywhere within their reach." But he demonstrates that an unduly large proportion of the population between the limits of the school age, assumed to be between four and thirteen years, is growing up without any instruction whatever; the figures stand thus:—

Number of children on the school registers, exclusive of	
Mission Schools	15,553
Average daily attendance	8,999

But taking from the census the aggregate number of children available as 25,858, and deducting therefrom the recorded number 15,558, there remains a balance of 10,800, and making every allowance for mission, private, and other schools, which do not come under his inspection, he calculates on a residuum of nearly 9,000 unprovided for, or at least not enjoying the educational advantages available to them. As the Government grants for

1871 amounted to £17,263, exclusive of the salary and travelling expenses of the Government Inspector, it will be conceded that the pecuniary means are furnished with commendable liberality. The appropriation may be classed under the following heads:—Queen's College Grammar School; Bishop's College Training Institution; Roman Catholic Grammar School; Roman Catholic Orphan School; Training Masters and Pupil Teachers; Repairs of the fabrics and school books in aid of the general schools.

Of the 165 schools assisted by the Government, 56 belonged to the Church of England, 20 to the Church of Scotland; 5 were Roman Catholic, 24 Wesleyan, 29 London Missions and Congregational; 4 infant-schools, 5 estates' schools, and 7 Indian Mission Schools, in addition to which must be mentioned schools established on estates by the proprietors for the benefit of the children of the Asiatic immigrants, whose attendance, however, it is difficult to induce. According to the census of 1857, the population, which then numbered 127,695, represented the following educational results:—

Able to read and write	12,952
Able to read only	11,466
Not ascertained, or assumed to be wholly illiterate	103,277
	<hr/>
	127,695



The irregular attendance of the children is here, as elsewhere, one of the chief difficulties in the way of successfully imparting instruction generally, and the Inspector very naturally looks to compulsory attendance as the only efficient remedy; but it should be borne in mind, with reference to this serious drawback, that in very many localities throughout these possessions, there are times and seasons when access to the schools is periodically nearly forbidden to the children, since in the rainy season communication is almost altogether cut off for weeks at a time. With regard, again, to compulsory attendance in this Colony, the Inspector points out that great difficulties would present themselves in the great variety of races, the positions of the Asiatic immigrants, and the fact that a large proportion of the children are not really under parental control. In connection with this subject, I may be permitted to mention that about twenty years ago, when the local authorities in British Guiana were anxiously engaged in maturing arrangements for common schools throughout the country, I proposed to meet the difficulty by providing for a system of fines upon the parents for the absence of their children, for which they could be held responsible,

somewhat higher in amount than the school fee, and of course guarded by the necessary conditions for protecting those who were actually unable to pay, and securing the rights of such as should prefer to send their children to schools not receiving pecuniary aid from the State. Eventually, however, this project was given up, and although the denominational system was retained, after an ineffectual attempt to substitute one of a more secular character, yet the only resource for inducing the attendance of the children under the existing law is by requiring a certain proportion of local aid, either by subscriptions or school fees, or both combined, to be contributed as a condition of receiving Government aid. With respect to religious instruction, it is only to be imparted during a period set apart by the patron, and notified in the school, no child being compelled to attend if its parent or guardian object. There are three classes of certificated teachers, the second or third classes being respectively sub-divided into three sections; provision is also made for uncertificated teachers. As in Jamaica much difficulty is experienced in procuring an adequate supply of duly-qualified teachers, and with the view of meeting this want, the inspector urges the increasing the number of students at Bishop's College Training Institution, which, although obviously in direct connection with the Church of England, is open to and is taken advantage of by pupils of other denominations. At the Midsummer examination in 1871, for example, there were present two of the Church of Scotland, three Wesleyans, and two of the London Missionary Society, in addition to four of the Church of England,—a Wesleyan heading the list in Division III. of Class I. At the Christmas examination there were again four of the Church of England, one of whom failed to obtain a place, whilst another headed the list in the first division of the second class: there were two Church of Scotland, three Wesleyans, and two of the London Missionary Society. The Inspector also recommends the official recognition of the pupil-teachers, of whom sixteen were examined, and eleven classed at the latest examination; at present there are strong inducements to forsake the profession of teacher, by the higher incomes to be secured in other pursuits. The amount raised from fees and local contributions in aid of salaries was \$16,577 77c. in addition to \$1,133 17c. towards repairs; but the proportion of one-third, which is the condition of Government aid, was remarkably deficient in several schools.

In Barbadoes, where, as has been before remarked, the Church of England takes the lead amongst ecclesiastical denominations, the number of State-aided schools in 1870 was 141, with a register of

pupils amounting to 12,569, showing a slight reduction in the number of schools, but some increase in the number of scholars. They were divided thus :—

	Schools.	Scholars.
Church of England	120	10,610
Wesleyan	5	484
Moravian	16	1,475

Considerable sums were voted in aid of Codrington College Grammar School, and another educational institution known as Harrison's Trust Schools, and the attention of the Education Commissioners had been specially directed to the establishment and extension of infant-schools, the importance of which department is evidently beginning to be more generally recognised throughout these Colonies.

Governor Rawson had initiated a plan for making Codrington College a collegiate establishment for the neighbouring islands, in lieu of restricting it, as heretofore, to the status of a small theological school, and in his Report for 1871 he is enabled to state the nature and extent of the material aid afforded by the local legislature to both the College and Harrison's Endowed School. Towards the close of 1870, £600 per annum was allotted to the latter for ten years, besides an equal sum towards the purchase of a suitable school-house, and in the subsequent year a further sum of £400 per annum was granted towards the salary of a first-class head-master. Codrington College received a subsidy of £600 per annum for five years, and the conditions prescribed are that "Harrison's school shall provide for a sound and liberal education, embracing, in addition to the classics, a knowledge of French and German when practicable, and the elements of natural philosophy; and as to Codrington College Grammar School, that there shall be afforded to the public exhibitors a deep and sound education, both religious and secular, as a practical training for business, as an adequate education for the great competitive examinations, especially those for Woolwich, and for all branches of the Indian Civil Service, and as a really scholar-like preparation for further instruction at Codrington College, or at the universities of the United Kingdom." It may be added that the chief manner of assisting these establishments has been by instituting scholarships, obtainable by competition, thereby relieving parents from about two-thirds of the ordinary charge for tuition.

Codrington College has, moreover, been supplied by the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, under whose supervision it has always been, with the needful appliances for instructing the theological students, in accordance with the will of the pious

and liberal founder, General Codrington, "in physic and chirurgery, thereby qualifying them to be useful at once to the bodies and the souls of their people."

The system of remunerating the teachers of primary schools partly by results has been found to answer exceedingly well. At the third examination in 1871, seventy-five schools entered the lists, of which fifty-three belonged to the Church of England, fourteen to the Wesleyans, and the remaining eight to the Moravians, and it is added, "their relation to the State is identical, their organisation is the same, and their success tolerably equal." Governor Rawson remarks that assuming the Treasury contribution towards the cost of primary education at £4,000 per annum, it would give an average of six shillings, whereas in Demerara it was some time since six dollars, or twenty-five shillings; but it need be scarcely observed that the circumstances of the two Colonies are as different as possible.

Trinidad has been in no way behind-hand in the encouragement given to educational efforts for the benefit of its population. The returns furnished by the Inspector for 1871 show upon the whole fair progress as compared with 1870; for the last-mentioned year the number of pupils attending Government and State-aided schools was 3,250, with an estimated addition of 1,205 for attendants at denominational or private schools, whereas in 1871 the numbers were respectively 3,924 and 1,500; yet the increase is by no means commensurate with the requirements of the Colony. Of the total number of inhabitants by the census of 1871, 41,374 were returned as under twenty years of age; of these it is computed there were nearly 14,000 children within the limits of school age, whilst the returns show that only 5,424 were in connection with all the schools in the island. Two new schools were opened during 1871, one in connection with the Roman Catholic Church in Port of Spain, with a roll of 169 boys; the other under the management of a committee at S. Fernando, intended expressly for coolie children, of whom there were 98 in attendance, and several other private or estates' schools, for the benefit of the children of the Asiatic immigrants, had been established by one of the larger proprietors. Governor Longden reports considerable progress in the way of improvement since the date of the inspection of the Ward schools by Mr. Keenan three years since.

The Queen's Royal College, instituted during the government of Sir Arthur Gordon, with which the Roman Catholic College of the Immaculate Conception is now in connection, exhibits a total number of 142 students, of whom 185 were present at the latest or

December examination ; of these sixty-eight were supplied by the Royal College itself, and sixty-seven from the Roman Catholic College ; the great majority of these students passed. An addition to the professional staff had been made in the person of a teacher of chemistry, whose lectures will be open to the students of both colleges conjointly, and this pleasant feature the Governor hopes may soon be extended to all branches of science which are not affected by religious opinions.

Since September, 1870, the State contributions in aid of the primary schools are derived from a special educational rate, levied under the authority of the Education Ordinance of that year.

In Dominica the Board of Education is required by law to keep up one school at least in each parish for the reception of children of every creed, a plan which has been found more appropriate to the peculiar circumstances of Dominica, where, as in Trinidad and St. Lucia, the mass of the population is Roman Catholic, than the denominational system. It is remarked by the Inspector that there is still a multitude of children who would be at school but for the discreditable indifference of their parents.

In St. Lucia the income of the Education Fund is divided equally between two Committees, one composed of Roman Catholics, the other of Protestants. The fund itself is derived from an annual grant of £500 from the general revenue, and the proceeds of special duties and fines and penalties assigned for that object. The Protestant Committee grants its share to the Mico Schools, an institution which, it may be remembered, has been most usefully employed for many years in promoting primary education in the West Indies on the secular principle, the Bible being read daily without note or explanation. The Catholic Committee of course appropriate their available funds to the maintenance of their own denominational schools. There is no government inspection of any schools, but the Administrator suggests the possibility of providing for this much-needed duty by combined action with the neighbouring islands. In 1870 the ten Mico schools had 1,318 pupils on the rolls, and the seven Catholic schools 1,030. In 1869 the respective numbers had been 1,323 and 935, so that actually and relatively the increasing influence of the Roman Catholic clergy would seem to be indicated : the average number of scholars in daily attendance is about the same in both groups, or about five-eighths of the whole. The vernacular dialect of the people is a *patois* of French, containing but few English words, and Mr. Des Vœux intimates his opinion that the exclusive use of the English language in the schools is clearly a mistake ; and he

agrees with Mr. Keenan, whose valuable report on the state of education in Trinidad has been elsewhere alluded to, that reading should be first taught in the language of the country, and a knowledge of English acquired through it. The subjoined paragraphs of Mr. Des Vœux's very instructive report have a far wider application than to the limits of the island under his administration :—

“ Another radical fault in the educational system is quite as apparent here as in Trinidad. A number of youths leave the schools, who, because they can read and write fairly, and have some knowledge of arithmetic, look upon themselves as above any other manual labour than that of clerkship. But the field for the employment of clerks being very small, many never attain to that position, and too often become not only useless but positively harmful to society. It is this class which furnishes the village lawyers and petition writers, who gain a precarious livelihood by playing upon the credulity of the more ignorant. Disappointed in life, they avenge themselves on society by fomenting dissatisfaction, provoking useless litigation, and inventing frauds; while others do nothing whatever, and live upon the earnings of their wives and mistresses.

“ The best remedy for this evil would be the introduction of an industrial element into school teaching. By familiarising children from their earliest years with the tools of the labourer and the artisan, not only would their use in manhood be rendered more easy, but these false notions of dignity would probably be overcome by degrees, and eventually precluded altogether.”

In 1870 a Grammar School for boys was for the first time established in the island: it is superintended by a Roman Catholic clergyman; and the ladies of the Ursuline convent of S. Joseph conduct, as they do likewise in British Guiana, a very efficient school for girls, open to Catholics and Protestants alike. In the boys' school there were twenty-nine pupils, and exactly double the number in that for girls.

In Antigua the Commissioners report that in 1870 the attendance at schools had been greater than at any time during the previous four years, but that it is fluctuating and irregular, and must be so so long as comparative poverty urges the parents to seek employment for the child either at home or abroad: so long as teachers are obliged to exact school-pence from the children whose attendance they are powerless to enforce: so long, in short, as education is not rendered, at any rate to some extent, compulsory. As contrasted with 1869, the books show an increase of 185 in

numbers and of 96 in average attendance, whilst both years compare favourably with 1867 and 1868.

In St. Kitt's the total number of scholars on the books of the Government schools in 1870 was 2,901, and the average attendance, 1,782. The first-mentioned total is divided amongst the ecclesiastical denominations as follows:—

	Schools.	Scholars.
Church of England	13	1,093
Wesleyan	9	1,016
Moravian.....	6	792
	<u>28</u>	<u>2,901</u>

Of the Grammar School, the Principal reports that upon the whole he cannot speak hopefully, unless boys can be attracted from the rural districts and from the neighbouring islands by the provision of adequate boarding accommodation, so as to bring the number up to thirty or forty. He mentions that during the year he had received two boys from the rising portion of the coloured class, and he had reason to expect others: to them he considers that the gain will be very great, "provided that the staple element of the school should remain, as heretofore, white."

The reports under this head from the other Dependencies do not, I think, present any salient feature requiring special notice, and I trust that what precedes will suffice to give a fair though very concise view of the actual position of this important feature of their social condition.

The only remaining head which it has occurred to me as desirable to include in the Statistical Chart is the institution of Savings' Banks, and I think it will be regretted that they are not more generally and widely made use of. In British Guiana it will be observed with satisfaction that the several classes of immigrant labourers taken together, although not equalling the Creole depositors in numbers, largely exceed them in the amount of their deposits, constituting indeed nearly sixty per cent. of the whole.

APPENDIX A.

It is a vulgar error, copied and repeated from one book to another, that in the Tropics the luxuriance of the vegetation overpowers the efforts of man. Just the reverse is the case: Nature and the climate are nowhere so favourable to the labourer, and I fearlessly assert that here the "primeval" forest can be converted into rich pasture and meadow land, into cultivated fields, gardens, and orchards, containing every variety of produce, with half

the labour, and what is of more importance, in less than half the time than would be required at home, even though we had clear instead of forest ground to commence upon. It is true that ground once rudely cleared, in the manner of the country, by merely cutting down the wood and burning it as it lies, will, if left to itself, in a single year be covered with a dense scrubby vegetation; but if the ground is cultivated and roughly weeded, the trunks and stumps will have so rotted in two or three years as to render their complete removal an easy matter, and then a fine crop of grass succeeds; and with cattle upon it, no more care is required, as no shrubby vegetation again appears. Then, whatever fruit trees are planted, will reach a large size in five or six years, and many of them give fruit in two or three. Coffee and cacao both produce abundantly, with the minimum of attention; orange and other fruit trees are never done anything to, but if pruned would no doubt yield fruit of a superior quality in greater quantity. Pine-apples, melons, and water-melons are planted, and when ripe the fruit is gathered, there being no intermediate process whatever. Indian corn and rice are treated nearly in the same manner. Onions, beans, and many other vegetables thrive luxuriantly. The ground is never turned up, and manure never applied; if both were done, it is probable that the labour would be richly repaid. Cattle, sheep, goats, and pigs may be had to any extent; nobody ever gives them anything to eat, and they always do well. Poultry of all kinds thrive. Molasses may be easily made in any quantity, for cane put into the ground grows and gives no trouble; and I do not see why the domestic process used in the United States for making Maple-sugar should not be applied here.

Now I unhesitatingly affirm that two or three families, containing half-a-dozen working and industrious men and boys, and being able to bring a capital, in goods, of fifty pounds, might in three years find themselves in the possession of all I have mentioned. Supposing them to get used to the mandioca and Indian-corn bread, they would, with the exception of clothing, have no one necessary or luxury to purchase: they would be abundantly supplied with pork, beef, and mutton; poultry, eggs, butter, milk, and cheese; coffee and cacao; molasses and sugar; delicious fish, turtles and turtle's eggs, and a great variety of game would furnish their table with constant variety, while vegetables would not be wanting, and fruits, both cultivated and wild, in superfluous abundance, and of a quality that none but the wealthy in our land can afford. Orange and lemons, figs and grapes, melons and water-melons, jack-fruits, custard-apples, pine-apples, cashews, alligator-pears, and mamee-apples are some of the commonest, whilst numerous palm and others forest fruits furnish delicious drinks which everybody soon gets very fond of. Both animal and vegetable oils can be procured in abundance for light and working. And then, having provided for the body, what lovely gardens and shady walks might not be made! How easy to construct a natural orchid-house beneath a clump of forest trees, and collect the most beautiful species found in the neighbourhood! What elegant avenues of palms might be formed! What lovely climbers abound to train over arbours or up the walls of the house!—*Wallace, "Travels on the Amazon and Rio Negro."* Lond., 1853, pp. 334-336.

APPENDIX B.

We have commenced in this impression to publish the Reports of the District Medical Officers on the condition of the population in the rural districts, and the details which they give will afford anything but pleasant reading. The publication of the vital statistics of the Colony have already made us painfully aware from time to time of the decreasing numbers of our population, the death-rates having for the last ten years, according to the Registrar-General's returns, exceeded the births by 0·78 per cent., while the decrease shown by the Census returns is still greater. Other communities around us have in the meanwhile been progressing rapidly by natural increase; thus, while in 1805 the population of Antigua was 40,300, and that of Barbadoes 77,130, in 1871 the population of Antigua had fallen to 34,344, while that of Barbadoes had increased to 160,000; and this comparison is the more startling when we find Governor Rawson of Barbadoes stating that the birth-rate of our island has been all the time in excess of the birth-rate of Barbadoes, in proportion of course to the number of the inhabitants in each place. Our climate has been pronounced, and with justice, anything but unfavourable to human life, and its salubrity is attested by numerous European and other residents, who generally declare that they enjoy at least as excellent health here as in any other place they have ever lived. The cause of the decay of our population may therefore be looked for from sources other than the influences of climate, and it is with the object of resolving a question which has become the vital question of the day that our Government has called for special reports from the medical officers in the several districts. To know the source of an evil is the first step towards providing a remedy, and it is in this spirit, with this object, that our government has at length vigorously devoted itself to a task of investigation which we hope will result in a great social revolution.

Dr. Freeland has evidently bestowed much pains on the subject of the inquiry which he was charged to institute, and his evidence points painfully to the vast havoc which is yearly made of infant life by the systematic neglect of those who are its natural guardians. In the more advanced life of the labourer, destitution, arising from various causes, from improvidence, habitual disregard of domestic and moral obligations, as well as from the frequent occurrence of seasons of drought, he believes to be among the direct occasions of premature mortality among the people; but he emphatically draws attention to the wholesale destruction of life at the periods of infancy and early childhood, his conclusion being that neglect at these periods when it does not at once destroy, incapacitates more than anything else the young constitution from passing through the maladies incidental to childhood; and hence the loss at this stage of existence of numbers who otherwise would live to become strong pillars in our social fabric. No wonder, then, that we find the Doctor, an estates' proprietor himself, prescribing as the first and chief of his remedies the establishment

of nurseries on the several cultivated estates of the island, to look after labourers' infants, when either indifference induces or necessity compels the mothers to be absent from their offspring. And the Doctor goes further, and recommends that every estate be compelled to furnish one meal a day to such children of the labourers under ten years of age as may be assigned to it after an enumeration of the number of children in the parish. It was gratifying to hear in the Council only last week that Mr. Holborow, of Betty's Hope, had already with success been adopting this plan, and that Mr. Martin, at High Point, had, with an issue however not in accordance with his praiseworthy intentions, been experimenting in this good way. Other gentlemen in the country may, for aught we know to the contrary, have been travelling in this humane direction, and if so they have not only been doing a kindly thing, but have been also wise in their generation. As Mr. Semper reminded honourable gentlemen in the Council on Thursday, property has its responsibilities and duties as well as its claims, and this fundamental truth applies with equal force to the village proprietor and to the estate owner. The obligation which Dr. Freeland would cast upon the estates of relieving to some extent the more helpless class of their labourers, is but instituting a system of poor-rates, though in a form different from that which prevails in England; and on the score of outlay, where the object, as the Doctor well says, is to "save to the country a native peasantry and obviate the necessity of resorting to a doubtful and expensive immigration," no rational objection can be raised. The plan, Mr. Holborow, who has tried it, said, does not cost much, and is repaid to the estates by the more healthy condition of the young people, fitting them indeed for labour which otherwise they could not perform. We have no doubt that many planters will be found willing enough to follow the laudable example both of Mr. Holborow and Mr. Martin, but all have not the same freedom of action, nor perhaps the same pressing inducements. If the project is to be adopted universally as a system, it is obvious that Government must undertake it, and impose a special tax to defray at least part of its cost; and from this tax of course the villages, from which are drawn the bulk of the agricultural population, could not in fairness or good policy be exempted.

Not the least interesting feature of the report which we have been noticing is a number of questions addressed to female labourers, residing either on estates or in the villages, and the answers given disclose a state of demoralisation among the people which helps to account for much of the poverty and infantile suffering brought to light, and will disappoint perhaps many people who have been looking for better results from the teachings and example of schoolmasters and the ministrations of the clergy. Forty-three child-bearing women were examined, some married and some not, and to these were born 205 children, of whom 124 only had lived, while Dr. Freeland, who has to a considerable extent forestalled the labours of the commission which his Excellency the Administrator has appointed to inquire into the condition of our peasantry, concludes his exhaustive report by remarking that he had collected "nearly sixty similar cases to the above, all more or less proving destitution, poverty, and neglect, and a total disregard and indifference to the consequences of concubinage. Poverty is not, however,

peculiar to any particular state; let us therefore postpone preaching, and at once feed the dying children of our labourers."—*From the "Antigua Observer," December 14th, 1872.*

APPENDIX C.

We are enabled in this issue to lay before our readers outside the Colony an approximate account current of the transactions of the sugar estates during 1871, which will give them some idea of the extent of the cultivation, and of the large sums of money kept in constant circulation throughout the country. The account is made out by an eminent statistician long connected with sugar cultivation, who has based his calculations on the information of their workings, given by 61 estates to the "British Guiana Directory" for last year. Of this number 37 were vacuum-pan estates, having 23,661 acres in cane cultivation, of which they reaped 20,955 acres (82 per cent. of the whole) to make 37,151 hhds. of sugar and a quantity equal to 13,651 puncheons of rum, being an average yield of 1.77 sugar and 57 gallons of rum to the acre. The remaining 24 were common process estates, having 10,634 acres in canes, of which 8,785 (82 per cent) were reaped, giving a return of 15,140 hhds. of sugar and 5,766 puncheons of rum, the average per acre being 1.72 hhds. of sugar and 65 gallons of rum. Of the 70 estates that did not publish their workings, 38 were vacuum-pan, which made 38,592 hhds., and 32 were common process, which made 15,159 hhds; making the grand total of last year's crop 75,743 hhds. vacuum-pan sugar, and 30,299 hhds. common process sugar, which sums united (106,042) agree, after allowing the quantity necessary for home consumption, with the return of the Custom-House of the sugar exported for the year ending December, 1871. Following up the information gained from the published result of the working of one portion of the crop, and assuming that the other portion was made from a similar acreage, we have a total cultivation of 69,520 acres, of which 42,722 acres were cut to make 75,743 hhds. vacuum-pan sugar and 27,831 puns. rum; and 17,580 acres were cut to make 30,299 hhds. common process sugar and 11,639 puncheons rum; the total being 60,302 acres of canes, or 86 per cent of the entire cultivation, cut to give 106,042 hhds. of sugar and a quantity of rum equal to 39,370 puncheons. This return from the fine cane lands of British Guiana cannot be considered favourable; certainly it is not a heavy crop, and it is hard to reconcile the figures with the return of three and four hhds. per acre we have heard some people brag of.

The approximate value of the above produce is as follows, say:—

75,743 hhds. V.P. of which 10 per cent is 2nds. at ...\$106	\$ 8,028,758	0
30,299 hhds. C.P. at 85	2,575,415	0
39,370 puns. rum at 50	1,968,500	0
Total value of Crop	\$12,572,673	0

To conduct the agricultural and manufacturing departments necessary to produce the above crop, a pay-list would be required of...\$ 4,600,000 0

Expense Account as follows :—

Packages—Sugar hhds. 106,042, at \$4 50 ...	\$477,189	0	
Rum packages, 39,370 at \$7 50 ...	294,275	0	
Fuel—Sugar, at \$6 per hhd. ...	636,252	0	
Rum, at \$3 per pun. ...	118,110	0	
Draining engines, 35 working 50 days at 3 tons per day, 5,250 tons at \$7 ...	36,750	0	
Artificial manures at \$10 per acre ...	695,200	0	
Immigration—Planters' share ...	427,712	0	
Hospital expenses, including comforts and medicines for 49,000 people at \$7 per caput	343,000	0	
Medical men's salaries ...	63,893	0	
Cottage accommodation, including extension and repairs at 10 cents per caput per week	254,800	0	
Staff, including attorneys, town agents, managers, engineers, overseers, &c. ...	700,000	0	
Drogherage, including carriage of produce to market and supplies to estates... ..	500,000	0	
Lime, bisulphate, sulphuric acid... ..	300,000	0	
Lubrication and lighting	150,000	0	
			4,997,181 0

Tear and wear of machinery and other

things, say 75 plants, with vacuum-pans, &c., complete at \$80,000... ..	\$6,000,000	0	
56 com. process, plants at \$40,000.. ..	2,240,000	0	
35 draining engines	1,004,000	0	

At 10 per cent... .. \$9,244,000 0 9,244,000 0

Premium on insurance, about	75,000	0	
Live stock and keep (not including grass). ..	100,000	0	
Commission on sales of produce \$12,572,673 at 1½ per cent	\$188,590	0	363,590 0

\$10,885,171 0

Cr.

Sugar and rum Account... .. \$12,572,673 0

Dr.

Pay List..	\$ 4,600,000	0	
Expense Account	6,285,171	0	

10,885,171 0

Apparent profit... .. 1,687,502 0

\$12,572,673 0 12,572,673 0

Stock Account—

75 vacuum-pan estates making 75,743 hhds., at \$140 ...	\$ 10,604,020	0	
56 Common process estates making 30,299 hhds., at \$130	3,938,870	0	

\$ 14,542,890 0

The foregoing clearance shows a profit of 11 and a fraction per cent. on the working. In 1870 a return was sent in to the Government, showing that there were 70,000 acres of land in cane cultivation; instead of planters being enabled to increase the area of cultivation on the following year, they were obliged to let it decrease, simply through a deficiency of labourers to till the soil. During 1871, 13 new vacuum-pan plants took the place of the old common process ones, 2 V.P. plants were thoroughly renovated, and 5 new hospitals were built, at a total cost of \$904,000 nearly, one half of which amount was spent in Colonial material and labour. In fact so great was the demand for artificers that hands could not be procured at any price, and much delay in erecting new machinery took place in consequence. As we have said already, the circulation of the large sums necessary to carry on the sugar industry of the Colony is the life of all the minor branches of industry. Its influence is to be seen to greatest advantage in the appearance of George Town at the present day, as compared to what it was say twenty years ago. It has brought into existence foundries, dry dock, steam-saw mills, shipbuilding yards, and the various workshops scattered broadcast over the city, all giving employment to thousands, whose occupations are dependent not indirectly, but directly, on the requirements of the sugar plantations.

Much has been said about the heavy expense of living in the Colony, and with truth, but can it be wondered at, so long as the peasantry to whom we might look for the principal supplies of food, are satisfied to give their labour to the estates, at a rate that enables them to limit their toil to two or three days a week? Until we have a frugal, hard working peasantry (such as the Chinese promise to be), who will take the hidden riches out of the soil in the shape of root and green crops, and raise poultry, sheep, and pigs to supply the demand at lower rates than the American farmer can with all his disadvantages, living is not likely to become any cheaper. To see the effect of a crowded population, and a consequent low rate of wages, on the price of the ordinary articles of food, we need only look to Barbadoes, where the labourers are compelled to supplement their earnings by diligently squeezing from the soil all that it can yield, and by raising stock of different kinds on a plan so frugal, that it might be said with little exaggeration, an animal is reared on the space its shadow covers on their rack-rented piece of ground; the consequence of this is, that they can afford to send their stock and provisions over to Demerara, and undersell our people in their own market. As it is not generally known what can be done by the small farmer in growing provisions here, the following authentic instance of the productiveness of the soil may be of some interest to most of our readers. A piece of waste ground, about a quarter of an acre in extent, on a sugar estate, was broken up, ridged, and planted with sweet potatoes in November last, at a cost of \$15; four months after a Chinese labourer offered the manager \$40 for the crop, which he would lift at his own expense, and of course the Chinese had an eye to the satisfactory profit he would make of the bargain by selling the potatoes, retail. Here we have a return equal to \$160 per acre, in the third of a year, without including the crop of pumpkins, peas, shalots, and other vegetable grown round the borders of the plot. But the potato is not the

only vegetable that gives a handsome return for the cost of growing it. Here is a copy of a Plantain Journal, showing the yield of the ground under cultivation during a period of four years:—

First year	\$35	\$8,987	\$3,432	64
Second year...	127	20,276	5,955	14
Third year	153	26,694	12,327	39
Fourth year...	161	14,852	4,560	69
			<hr/>				<hr/>			
			\$476		\$70,809				\$26,275 86	

From this it is seen that the average yield per acre during the four years was 150 bunches, and that the average price per bunch was 37 cents, making a return of \$55 20 per acre. In plantain cultivation, sweet potatoes, cassava, tannias, &c., may be grown between the rows and be made the means of paying the expense of the plantains' cultivation, with a balance over to the good. We publish these returns simply to show that the cause of the dearness of provisions, which is said to tell so hard on the middle class of the population, is not owing to the absence of inducement to the labouring class, in the matter of profit, to grow them. An industry like this that requires no capital, and gives such a handsome profit, lying in a great measure neglected, clearly shows what a powerful temptation the wages paid by estates hold out to our agricultural labourers. Until our labourers are brought to the alternative of working six days in the week to gain a comfortable living, or adopting the occupation of provision growers, there is little chance of our vegetables and small stock being reduced in price. We should be sorry to see them as hard driven to make ends meet as are the labourers in that ants' nest, Barbadoes, though there is so little chance of this ever happening that we may save our anticipated compassion; but a keener rivalry in the labour market would do them, as a class, a world of good, by the necessity of sharpening their wits, and strengthening their energies from being thrown more on their own resources. The natural increase of the present population will never be the means of creating this desired rivalry; the way to bring it about is the way by which the interests of the Colony at large will be advanced, that is, by the continuance of the Government in the present wise undertaking of introducing labour from abroad.

APPENDIX D.

THE WEST INDIES.

There can be little doubt that among the great changes, political, commercial, and social, of our present very mutable era, a revolution on a very large scale is imminent in the Carribean Sea. In saying this, we do not allude to the weekly revolutions which, on a small scale, come round as regularly as bakers' bills throughout all those American countries which once owned the rule of Spain. The chronic upturnings of what in those countries stands for society, are now become a part rather of the established order of things than of a revolution properly speaking.

They excite no surprise, for most Spanish-Americans, whether resident on an island or the mainland, would be rather more astonished than pleased at passing a month without an overthrow of the previously existing government: and being past, they leave things very much as they were before they took place. We look for something a great deal more universal in its influence, more permanent in its consequences, and we may hope, less violent in its action. Nor do we base this judgment merely upon the active interference in the political concerns of these countries of the powerful Government of the United States, or the renewed interest shown in Jamaica within a recent period by the Government of Great Britain. Below and beyond all these mere symptoms, lie powerful elements of a social upheaval, in the natural characteristics and political conditions of these countries, added to the vast progress which all the rest of the world has recently made. There are, perhaps, no other countries on the globe so rich in agricultural wealth, nor more beautifully situated, nor with better sanitary resources than some of these specks of territory strung round the semi-circular line which closes in the shore of Central America between the Northern and Southern divisions of the Continent. For sugar especially, but also for several other of the most valuable of the agricultural productions of the world, there are no lands like those of the West Indies. Their situation in mid ocean procures for them at regular intervals the advantage of cooling breezes, and several of them have in the interior high mountains to which the inhabitants can resort by very short journeys, to escape from the extreme heats of the lower levels, where the plantations and commercial cities are to be found. Yet with all the causes of prosperity the populations of these countries are, as a whole, far behind the rest of the civilised world. Cuba and Porto Rico it is true may boast of a certain kind of prosperity enjoyed in a very large measure; but it is enjoyed only by a caste, the bulk of the population being still in the condition of slaves. In the other islands complaints of commercial stagnation have long been rife, and, though perhaps exaggerated, undoubtedly lead to the conclusion that the people are not satisfied with the results of their various pursuits. Now we hold that in an age when capital and enterprise, closely allied together, are seeking in all directions for fit openings for employment, it is impossible to believe that such chances as are presented by the West Indies can be much longer neglected. It is from men desirous profitably to invest their surplus capital, and from other men looking out for opportunities of making their business talents available, rather than from political combinations, that we expect to see the West Indies revolutionised. Political changes will come only and so far as they may be necessary to open and secure the path to commercial and industrial improvement, and for that purpose the two great organisers of communities, England and the United States, are at hand. There is little doubt that engineering talent will be speedily directed to the solving of the old problem of piercing the Isthmus between the Pacific and the Atlantic—a movement that must give fresh importance to the West Indies, and must add to the other causes which promise an advance in their prosperity. The English islands will speedily be brought under a system of confederation which will greatly

facilitate, and it may be hoped in some important respects liberalise, their governments. Whether the other islands shall come under the direct political influence of the American Union or not, the mere agitation for that change indicates the necessity that will shortly be felt for placing their governments on a better footing, as it is certain that those who desire to avoid the annexation now so much talked of, must supersede it by something that will be, in the opinion of the people at least, nearly as good. Upon the whole, we judge that the hour has nearly sounded for a complete change in these islands, both in their internal conditions, and their relations with the rest of the world.—*Extract from Montreal Newspaper.*

APPENDIX E.

THE LEASE OF SAMANA BAY.

New York, January 15.

My letter of a month ago would, I presume, be the first intimation English readers could have of the private project on foot to obtain possession of Santo Domingo. The facts therein stated were substantially correct, though some of the details, as is usual in such cases, were inaccurate. The object of the Company, it seems, was to obtain possession, not of the whole island, but of the Peninsula and Bay of Samana, which they have just attained. A carefully-prepared charter-treaty was some time ago drawn up, signed by President Baez and the Company, whereby the latter obtained control of Samana for a yearly rental of \$150,000 (gold). This treaty the Dominican Senate has now ratified, and the most important part of the island is, therefore, virtually annexed to the United States.

Dr. S. G. Howe, of Boston, one of the incorporators, thus describes, in a letter to the *New York Tribune*, the powers and purposes of the Company:—

“The general features of the Samana Bay Company are like those of the old East Indian Company of Portugal, Holland, and England, in regard to extent of power; and to new and vast fields in which to exercise it. It may be instrumental in bringing about a revolution in the commercial and social condition of the West India Islands, as important and more beneficial than those effected in Asia.

“The Company has eminent domain over the whole Peninsula of Samana; and in the vast bay, with all its islands and reefs. It may exercise the sovereign power of framing laws for the government of its territory; appointing its officers of police, judiciary, and commerce; levying and collecting taxes; establishing custom-houses; fixing duties on imports and exports; building railroads, waggon-roads, canals, and telegraph lines within its own territory; and, by special contract, throughout the whole of the Dominican Republic, taking in return alternate leagues of public land. The Company may build, officer, and man ships, establish a bank, and exercise most of the general powers of sovereignty. It has bought up all grants and concessions previously made by the Dominican Government for lands, mining privileges, wharves, railroad lines, and the like, of whatever

nature. The owners of almost all these grants and concessions are members of the Company, and they have formally renounced in writing all ownership and interest, direct or indirect, in favour of the Company. It has the virtual monopoly of all the future opportunities of establishing companies for railroads, steamboats, mining or other purposes, by an article in the Convention, which requires that the Dominican Government shall never charter, authorise, or tolerate any such company, without first having offered to the Samana Bay Company a charter for the same purpose on the same terms.

"A contemplation of the objects and powers of the Company, of the wide field of its operations, and of the rare opportunity which it has of concentrating within its bay the currents of trade between Europe, the United States, and the South American market, and especially its avowed purpose to open a free port, which shall supplant that of St. Thomas—these things bring to mind, as was just said, the great achievements of the old East India Companies, and the deeds of men like Albuquerque, Clive, and Rajah Brooke. There is a wide difference, however, between the motives that led Europeans into the tropics and the measures which they took to carry out their purpose, and those which animate this Company. The first went down in the spirit of conquest. They had no other warrant or authority to possess and govern heathen lands than charters given by kings and potentates, who themselves had no other right or authority to dispose of them than that impudent assertion of a personage mentioned in the Scripture who offered to give away all the kingdoms of the earth. The virile men of the North went down to *exploiter* and virtually to subjugate the fertile South; to lay heavy burdens upon the people; to make them labour in mines, and toil in the fields, with no sense of duty to make them share in the profits and to improve their country by reciprocity of advantage. They came unexpected and uninvited. They took possession by violence, on sham treaties, and resorted to force when they could accomplish their purposes by no other means. The present Company goes virtually at the invitation of the Dominican people, and goes as a friend. It proposes to introduce all the modern improvements in the means of transit, in agriculture, and the mechanical arts. It means to improve the country and to elevate the people, believing that by so doing it will more promote its own interests than by following the selfish and short-sighted policy of the old companies. The Company has leased the territory by a regular treaty made with the Government of the Republic, which is authorised to make it by the laws of the land, and encouraged to do so by the expressed wish of the people."

The *Tribune*, commenting thereon, says:—

"The news which we publish this morning of the ratification of the treaty between President Baez and the Samana Bay Company of Santo Domingo is of high importance, not only to the adventurous merchants who have embarked in this remarkable enterprise, but also to the whole country. . . . This treaty places the Santo Domingo question in a new light. American merchants undertake to regenerate the Republic for their own profit; and, as they go about the work in a business-like way, with large capital, with ample privileges, and with the strongest possible

interest in doing it well, we may fairly presume that they will succeed where the United States of America would probably have failed. They have rolled all the jobs into one, and legitimatised it. They can bring in Yankee energy and shrewdness wherever it is wanted. They can offer inducements to settlers which neither Baez nor Congress could have offered. When their country is fit to be made a State of the Union, they can let it come in upon just and equal terms. Meanwhile, the United States will contribute nothing to the support of the growing community, and will have the satisfaction, such as it may be, of flying its flag in the West Indies—whereat we trust the annexationists will be duly happy."

APPENDIX F.

THE SANDWICH ISLANDS, THE FUTURE SUGAR COUNTRY OF THE UNITED STATES IN THE PACIFIC.

The question has frequently come up for consideration, both in and out of Congress, whether we should not strive to become as much as possible materially independent of all other commonwealths. Much national pride attaches to the idea, and with the exception of certain metals, and coffee, sugar, and tea, we are at the present day materially independent of the rest of the world. We might, on a emergency, dispense for a couple of years, while engaged in a war, even with coffee and tea, but we could not well do without the importation of sugar, tin, and spelter.

Cuba, the most important country to us, as the source from whence we draw the bulk of our sugar supply, we may eventually become the owners of, in somewhat the same manner as Louisiana and Florida were acquired, by either cession or purchase. To wage a war for the acquisition of the Island would evidently not pay, since the financial disturbance in our midst would endanger interests too mighty to be trifled with.

But the continued dependence upon Cuba for sugar may be to some extent circumvented, either by our acquiring St. Domingo, and reinstating sugar culture there, as it stood under Spanish and French sway, adding to it the cultivation of coffee on an extensive scale; or we may become the owners of the Sandwich Islands and convert them into a second Barbadoes, covered with sugar plantations.

The acquisition of St. Domingo would have become a positive fact by this time, if the plans of President Grant had not been, for political purposes, assailed by Sumner and Schurz and rendered unpopular by newspaper agitation. We shall consequently not now consider this plan of obtaining a sugar and coffee Colony at our very doors, although it be not altogether abandoned.

As a less unpopular substitute for St. Domingo, we have the idea suggested to the nation of acquiring in one way or another the Sandwich Islands, a most convenient mid-ocean half-way station on the path to China and Japan.

Their possession would give us a sugar-producing country of the first class, right off; and should we be able to procure the amount of manual

labour we need for the purpose, not many years would pass until, from 50,000 hogsheads of sugar, we should raise the production to four times as much.

Hawaii, the main island, occupies 4,500 square miles of the 7,500 constituting the area of the whole group. Jamaica has an area of 5,500 square miles.

In a couple of years we should produce as much sugar in the ten islands as Jamaica has done in her palmiest days, and our Pacific States would be altogether independent of Java and Manilla for all time to come, so far as our main staple of imports were concerned.

Another important consideration would be the opportunity we should have of practically solving the question of desirableness of acquiring islands confronting our coast, whether it be on the Atlantic or Pacific shore.

Were the peaceful possession of the Sandwich Islands to prove a national boon, that of St. Domingo would be better appreciated should we think less unfavourably of it in the meantime. As it is, the Polynesian group, called the Sandwich Islands, ships all its sugar to San Francisco already, and from the moment the flag of the Union waved over them, the advantage of coming in duty free would render sugar culture so profitable there, that planters would remove to Hawaii from all quarters, from the United States, from Java and Manilla. None of the drawbacks of night frosts experienced in Louisiana, would hinder cane cultivation there, and there would be no country like Cuba, as in the case of Louisiana, to compete with slave labour, near at hand, against the free labour of Hawaii, for Java and Manilla are distant from the Pacific States. That the Sandwich Islands will eventually become American, little doubt can be entertained. The question has arisen whether it shall be now, or whether English influence shall prevail and a mock throne be again raised there, a laughing-stock to all nations, because deprived of all dignity.—*American Grocer.*

APPENDIX G.

REPORT OF THE COMMISSIONERS APPOINTED TO INQUIRE INTO THE WORKING OF THE CENTRAL SUGAR FACTORIES SYSTEM IN MARTINIQUE AND GUADALOUPE.

To His Excellency E. D. BAYNES, Esq., Administering the General Government, &c. &c. &c.

SIR,—We, the undersigned, a Commission appointed by His Excellency the Governor-in-Chief, at the request of the Legislative Council, to inquire into and report upon the working of the Central Sugar Factories in Martinique and Guadeloupe, have the honour to submit the following Report.

We arrived at Basseterre, Guadeloupe, upon the 13th June, and proceeded without delay to the town of Point-à-Pitre, where the largest central

factory, or usine, in the French islands is situated, the "Compagnie Sucrière, E. Souqués et Cie., commonly called "L'Usine d'Arboussier." This factory stands in the suburbs of the fine seaport of Point-à-Pitre, is constructed upon the grandest scale, and is replete with all the improvements in machinery and the manufacture of sugar devised by modern science. The cost was £216,000, and the usine, when a third mill now being put up is available, will be equal to an out-turn in the first six months of the year of from 8,000 to 10,000 tons of sugar. It commenced operations on the 5th April, 1869, but did not get regularly to work until the 25th. The first season was completed with part of the copper machinery not fitted up, and at no time was the usine supplied with sufficient canes to keep its mill going. The supply of canes is derived from both divisions of Guadeloupe, the Volcanic and Calcareous. From the former they are conveyed in large lighters towed by steam-tugs; from the latter by the tramway, several miles in length. The canes are carted by the planter to his nearest point on the railway, or shore, and thence by the usine to the destination, where they are weighed by a sworn agent in the presence, if required, of a representative of the estate. The planter receives 5½ per cent. of the weight of his canes of "Conne quatrième," equal to No. 12 "Dutch Standard," the price being regulated by the market at Point-à-Pitre at the time the canes are delivered.

The process of sugar manufacture at this usine is as follows. The canes are bought by the planter to a siding of the main tramway on his estate. The waggon generally carries two tons of canes, and one mule on a good level ordinary tramway can draw easily two waggons. The waggon, when brought to the mill itself, conveys the canes to the rollers, the megass being elevated by power to a platform over the boilers. The juice on leaving the mill-bed falls through three strainers into a tank which has a double bottom heated by steam. It is treated here with a little bisulphate of lime, and is then run into a montejus. This montejus by steam sends the juice up to the clarifiers, where it is heated in the ordinary way and tempered with lime properly. From this it is passed to the charcoal filters, through which it gravitates, and then passes by a gutter into a receiver. From this it is passed to a montejus, and is thrown up by steam into a cistern over the triple effet. From this cistern it gravitates into the triple effet, passing from the first to the second and from the second to the third boiler, as the attendant wishes. When it leaves the third boiler it is generally speaking 25° "Beaumé" and it is immediately passed over new re-burned charcoal. It gravitates through this and falls into another receiver, from which the vacuum-pan takes it up and boils it to sugar. The first quality sugar is generally crystallised in the pan, and is then dropped into sugar-boxes which stand 7 ft. from the ground; under these boxes a little charging vessel runs on a railway that is hung from the bottom of the said boxes, and this vessel conveys the sugar over the centrifugals, where it is cured; the molasses from this being boiled up, when found in good condition, with the syrup of the following day. When these molasses are thick and clammy they are boiled into jelly by themselves and dropped into sugar-boxes, where they are allowed to granulate for a number of days. This makes the second

quality of sugar, and the molasses from this, along with the skimmings and subsidings of clarifiers, goes to make rum. The juice that leaves the clarifiers does not pass over fresh charcoal, but follows the syrup from the triple effet, thus assisting to wash out the sweets which may have been left by the syrup.

The figures following show the weight of canes delivered to the factory in the three years commencing 1869 :—

					Tons.			Kilos.
1869	17,808	17,808,217
1870	42,808	42,808,079
1871	68,745	68,745,493

This year, notwithstanding the severe drought, the receipt of canes was upwards of 75,000,000 kilos, or 75,000 tons.

Thus in the first three years the growth of canes upon plantations under contract to the usine had quadrupled, and the management, accused at first of having established a factory in a district devoid of canes, have been compelled to erect a third large and powerful mill with its accessories to provide for the reception of the normal quantity of canes expected, viz. 100,000,000 kilos, or 100,000 tons per annum.

This factory pays 5½ per cent. for its canes, and the figures following show the financial results for the three years ending 1871 :—

				Profits.		Loss.
1869	£4,385		
1870	—	...	£440
1871	28,899		
				33,284		
	Deduct			440	Loss in 1870.	
	Leaving			£32,844	Balance to Cr.	

A profit of £7,000 was expected in 1870. Severe losses sustained on produce shipped, owing to failures during the late war in France, and other circumstances connected with that trying and exceptional year, are assigned as the reason for the failure of profits at the usine in 1870.

In 1870, 6,096 "boucauts" of sugar of 500 kilos each, equal in round numbers to 3,000 tons, were obtained from the 42,808 tons of canes received, or 7·12 per cent. of sugar. 3 per cent of syrup was also obtained, which was converted into 470,486 litres = 117,620 gallons, of rum, of an average centigrade strength of 60 degrees equal to 39½ gallons per ton of sugar.

In 1871, 10,651 "boucauts" of sugar, or 5,325 tons, were obtained from the 68,745 tons of canes received, or 7·74 per cent, composed as follows :— First quality sugar, 6·24 per cent. ; second and third quality, 1·50 per cent. A minimum average return of 8 per cent. is confidently expected when not less than 25 per cent. of plant canes are regularly forwarded from the contributory estates to the factory.

The superintendent, in a report made to a General Meeting of the Shareholders on the 24th April, 1872, and unanimously adopted, remarks that this factory was compelled after its second campaign to refuse the offer of fresh contracts, and to increase its working power 50 per cent. to enable the usine to keep pace with the rapid increase in the production of the estates

engaged. "But two years ago," says M. Souqués, "a lack of canes was dreaded; now an excess of supply is to be feared."

This usine in April last, the third year of its existence, declared a first dividend of 24 per cent., exclusive of 4 per cent. carried to credit of the "Sinking Fund Account." The general manufacturing and working expenses of the usine in 1871 amounted to 2,394,298 francs, or £117,732. The sugar realised 3,543,867 francs, or £141,754; the proceeds of rum were 306,894 francs, or £12,275; equal together to £154,029, showing a profit upon a simple debit and credit account (without charging interest upon capital, wear and tear of stock, &c.) of £36,297 upon a manufacture of 68,745 tons of sugar and of 731,193 litres or 182,798 gallons of rum.

We had not the advantage of seeing this great laboratory at work, the operations for the year being ended.

The Commissioners beg respectfully to observe here, that the processes of manufacture both of sugar and rum in all the usines, both in Martinique and Guadeloupe, visited by them, are more or less identical, the only perceptible difference being the adoption in the new factories of the appliances of modern science and improved mechanical and other arrangements. The clarification of the juice, its reduction to syrup at a low temperature, the perfect crystallisation and colour of the sugar, and a maximum return, are obtained by repeated filtration through animal charcoal, the "triple effet," and vacuum-pan processes, and last of all centrifugal machines.

A great drawback at present to the Usine d'Arboussier is the want of fresh water; salt water is obliged to be used, as also water derived from wells decidedly brackish. The injury to the boiler tubes and other machinery from using salt water has been so great that arrangements are now being made, at a great cost, to bring fresh water to the usine from the other division of the island.

We take leave of this "palace factory" with the remark that the proprietors of contributory estates, as well as several shareholders with whom we had the pleasure of conversing, expressed themselves perfectly satisfied with the present condition of affairs, and very confident as to the permanent success of the usine. The shares originally issued at 500 francs are now quoted at 1,000 francs, but none are to be had. We were informed upon good authority that estates which before the establishment of usines were in debt, or constantly changing hands, were now in a flourishing condition, and that others which had almost fallen out of cultivation were now making excellent crops.

We had the pleasure and advantage of several interviews with M. Souqués, whose family possesses a small private usine called BEAUFORT, not far from Point-à-Pitre. We were unable to visit this factory, but we were informed by M. Souqués (and his statements were confirmed by independent testimony) that this usine purchased canes from the neighbouring estates, paying 6 per cent for them, and that upon a manufacture of 2,000 tons of sugar per annum the clearances of the usine were very handsome. The precise amount was not however communicated to us, but we observe that Mr. Russell, a gentleman who appears to have visited Guadeloupe from Demerara three or four years ago, in some notes of his visits entitled "Two

Weeks in Guadeloupe" speaking of the Beauport Usine, states the books show that they cleared £19,400 upon 59,963,371 lbs. canes purchased (1868). These figures show a profit of about 14s. 6d. per ton of canes purchased. Mr. Russell states the quantity of sugar made in 1868 to have been 2,600 tons, and 62,700 gallons of rum, or a return of about 210 lbs. of sugar and $1\frac{1}{2}$ gallons of rum per ton of canes manufactured. The Usine CLUNY is, we were informed, in general respects a similar factory to that of Beauport, and canes are brought by water in punts from a distance of twenty miles and afterwards conveyed some miles further by tramway to the usine.

The Island of Guadeloupe is divided into two parts by a narrow channel called the Rivière Salée, running north and south. The western portion (Guadeloupe proper) is of volcanic origin; it is mountainous, well wooded, and abundantly supplied with water; its soil, resulting from the disintegration of trap and conglomerate, is generally of a stiff argillaceous nature. The eastern portion is entirely calcareous; its surface is undulating, the hills nowhere attaining any considerable elevation: they are generally cleared of wood. It suffers much more now from drought than the western part, the inhabitants deriving their supply of water chiefly from wells and ponds, as in Antigua: in fact, in its general features and climatal conditions it bears a considerable resemblance to that part of our island lying north-east of a line drawn from Dickenson's Bay on the north-west to Willoughby Bay on the south-east. It is in this portion of the island, called Grande Terre, that the "Usines Centrales" are situated.

Leaving Point-à-Pitre, the Commissioners traversed the Island of Grande Terre in a north-east direction to the small port of Le Moule, at short distances from which are several usines constructed on a smaller scale than that of D'Arboussier. The country in this part of the island bears much analogy in its soil, climate, and general aspect to the corresponding part of Antigua. The soil is generally a dark-coloured loam on a marly subsoil, overlying rock composed of indurated marl and a limestone made up of comminuted shells and coral. The water is derived from ponds, wells, and cisterns, there being no running water of any consequence. The canes appeared to be suffering from drought in the same degree as those of Antigua. We were unable to ascertain positively the amount of rainfall, as it does not appear to be the custom to have pluviometers on estates, as with us.

USINE ZEVALLOZ.—The method of manufacture here was generally the same as D'Arboussier,—charcoal filters, triple effet, vacuum-pan and turbines. There was, however, a feature which we did not observe at the latter place, viz. the employment of refrigerators for economising the water supply. These consist of high sheds open on all sides, in which are placed strata of fascines. Over these is conducted the waste water which has served for condensation in the vacuum-pans, &c. &c., and percolating them it falls into a cistern underneath, its temperature reduced to that of the atmosphere; thus reduced, it is again available for condensing purposes. Zevalloz makes 2,000 tons of sugar. It works night and day. It employs 140 hands by day, and the same number by night. The greatest distance from which it brings its canes by rail is $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles; they are carted by the

planter to his nearest point on the railway, from that at the expense of the usine. This railway, with material, cost between £1,600 and £3,200 per mile. The breadth between the rails is $1\frac{1}{4}$ yards, and the speed attained six to ten miles an hour. The USINE DUCKASSAING is on the same principle and scale as that of Zevalloz. They both pay 6 per cent. of the weight of the canes.

The labouring population in this district has not increased since the establishment of central factories: about 50 per cent. of the hands of the separate sugar-works, when these were abolished, were required to work the usines, the planter thus gaining 50 per cent of the hands employed about the works. After crop many of the usine labourers assist in the cultivation of the estates; others till their own plots, being generally small land-holders. In ten years the price of labour has augmented by $\frac{1}{3}$. Here again we were informed that estates within easy distances of the central factory which formerly were in a chronic state of indebtedness are now clear, prosperous, and well cultivated. The appreciation by the planters themselves of the beneficial effect of the usines was evidenced by their continual desire to have the line of railway extended so as to enable them to forward their canes. At the commencement there was considerable difficulty in coming to an arrangement where proprietors were under engagements to consignees, but as the latter (here called *commissonnaires*) were almost always residents, or represented in the Island, they agreed to wait; the planters in the meantime paying a commission, as before, upon the quantity of sugar made at the usine from their canes, the Director being guarantee. In some cases the usine took up these debts. After the disconnection of the planters with the *commissonnaires*, the Colonial Bank advanced money for the purposes of cultivation at 6 per cent., the usine being security for their repayment.

We quitted Guadaloupe for Martinique upon the 18th of June, but our steamer having been in communication with St. Kitt's and Trinidad, two ports declared infected on account of small-pox, we were refused permission to land, and were forced to proceed in the steamer. At each successive island the same ill fate attended us, and we had no alternative but to change steamers at St. Lucia and proceed to Demerara; upon our arrival there we were admitted to *pratique*, and remained until the return of the steamer upon the 26th. We were detained over forty-eight hours at Barbadoes, and did not reach our destination at Martinique until the 1st July, when two of our number were enabled to land, Mr. Harman being compelled to return home. Martinique differs from Guadaloupe in having no calcareous formation; its origin is purely volcanic, and its physical geography, soil, climate, &c. resemble those of the western half of the latter island. The rainfall appears to have been superior; during our stay it rained nearly every day.

USINES.—These are situated principally on the north-east of the island there is only one on the south-west side, close to St. Pierre, called LA RIVIERE BLANCHE, which is newly established, having only worked three weeks at the end of last crop. It has all the latest improvements in machinery and apparatus, is capable of making 2,500 tons, and its cost, everything included, was £48,000. It consumes from 400 to 650 kilograms of

coals to the 1,000 kilograms of sugar made. The process is the usual charcoal filters, triple effet, vacuum-pan, and centrifugals. They had not a sufficient supply of canes this year, but expect a large development of cultivation in the neighbourhood, chiefly by the small proprietors. This usine gives 6 per cent. for its canes.

We proceeded without delay to Fort de France. Near this town is the first factory established in Martinique by an Englishman, twenty-five years ago, *POINTE SIMON*. It did not succeed well at first in consequence of want of experience, defective machinery, &c., but is now paying well: it gives, however, only 5 per cent. of the weight of canes.

DILLOU.—This factory is situated about three miles from St. Pierre. The works are well constructed and very compact, with all the latest appliances. The length of the building is 72 metres, breadth 38 metres. It was in full working order eighteen months after it had been ordered in France. The machinery is by *Lecoq* and *Villette*, and the cost of the usine alone amounted to £44,000. The railway, which is twelve miles in length, has been very expensive in consequence of some mistakes in its construction, as well as the marshy and unfavourable condition of the soil. This has crippled the Company; but full confidence seemed to exist as to its ultimate success, and much clearing is being effected of the neighbouring low hills. This was its first year of full working order. It has 4 boilers, 1 triple effet, 20 pans, 16 turbines, 20 filters. The scum is pressed and the cake used as manure. The specific gravity of juice 9 to 10 *Beaumé*, 1,100 tons of sugar were made for the present crop, and $\frac{1}{2}$ ton of coal was consumed per ton of sugar. This usine made a profit this year of 250 tons of sugar and 1,000 casks of rum of 250 litres each, selling at 90 francs = £8 12s. per cask. The sugar sold at £40 per ton. The mean weight of canes was found to be equal to 28 tons per acre.

DISTRICT OF LAMENTIN.—This a fine alluvial valley, surrounded by mountains of trap and conglomerate, which are covered to their summits with dense forests (an ordinance of the Government forbids the felling of this:) as a natural consequence it is abundantly supplied with running water. The soil resulting from the disintegration of the volcanic rocks is a stiff red clay, resembling closely that seen in Antigua in the valley between *Drews Hill* and *Green Castle*. All the old sugar-mills are worked by water power. The canes in this valley are of a rank luxuriant growth, but the juice is of a low specific gravity, averaging about 9° *Beaumé*. In the private works in this district it is calculated that one ton of sugar costs, in expense of cultivation £10, and for general expense, £4; total £14. The quality of sugar made sells at £22 per ton: each ton of sugar gives 50 gals. molasses, which made into rum is worth £2. Produce £24; deduct expenses £14; leaving a profit of £10 per ton.

Two factories are established in this district, viz., *Lareinty* and *Soudan*. *LAREINTY* is one of the oldest factories in Martinique, having been working for ten years. It gives only 5 per cent. for its canes. Its contracts with the planters are about to expire, and it is improbable that they will renew them upon the same conditions, as they generally complain of the percentage being too low. Their properties, however, are in good

cultivation, and they are free from debt. An estate in the neighbourhood was shown us, from which the proprietor (now resident) in former times had much difficulty in obtaining a revenue of £400, and which is now leased by the usine at £1,000, and it is probable that this sum will be doubled at the expiration of the lease.

SOUDAN, situated three miles from Lareinty, is not yet completed; it is entirely built of iron, of great strength, with latest improvements, and has a fine railway. It is established on the 6 per cent. principle, and has numerous adherents. All around these factories the evidences of progress and improvement are palpable, the lower slopes of the hills being cleared and planted on every side.

USINE ROBERT.—We had not time to visit this factory, situated on the other side of the island, but in an interview with its Director we learned the following facts. It is calculated to make 2,000 tons, and the cost of plant was £60,000. The percentage of sugar was $6\frac{1}{2}$ to 7 per cent.; of juice, 68 to 72 per cent. In 1871, quantity of canes ground, 22,300 tons; in 1872, 19,500 tons. The quantity of sugar made was nevertheless the same, so that in 1871 the percentage extracted was 6.29; in 1872, 7.09—the total quantity of sugar made being 1,400 tons. Coals used, including steam-tugs, 1,117 tons. The cinders and residue of press are given to planters. The average of rum obtained from molasses is 70 per cent.

GENERAL REMARKS. *Cultivation*.—The tillage and preparation of the land in the French islands are not so complete as in Antigua, and weeding of the canes is not regarded as of such vital importance as in this island. A common double mould board plough (French) with six or eight bulls, opens the land in furrows. Without, in general, further preparation, the cane plants, from eight to ten inches long, are inserted in either side of the furrow. We did, however, observe the use of the cross plough upon several plantations.

Stock.—The Commissioners were much impressed with the condition of the stock, in Martinique especially, and the evident care taken of them. Magnificent bulls of the Spanish and Senegal breed, of large size, and teeming with condition and strength, grace the meadows waving with nutritious and luxuriant grasses. The plough and draft cattle are stall fed and penned up at night under cover, and the manure is carefully collected, the pens being heavily meated with the abundant trash from the fields. The Spanish yoke, or "draught by the horns," the yoke being supported upon the nape of the animal's neck, is almost universal. The weight and physical strength of the animals nurtured upon the fat French pasturages fits them for such an application of draught power. In a desiccated island like Antigua, generally devoid of rich, well-watered paddocks and grazing land, and supporting only animals of inferior size, this asserted economy of draught force appears impracticable.

Labour.—Ordinary labourers get 10d. per day and 1s. at night. We were informed at D'Arboussier that there was some difficulty at first in getting the native labourers to work at night, and coolies were specially imported for this purpose.

Investment.—As affording the means of investment, usines both in

Guadaloupe and Martinique are in the highest popular favour. Capital both local and in France is freely subscribed to establish new factories upon a large and extensive scale. No less than eight factories, erected at considerable cost, have cropped up within the last two years, and two more large factories are now being erected. This is surely strong presumptive evidence that usines return a very handsome profit. We are able to endorse Mr. Russell's remarks in his notes before referred to, namely "that in passing through the country the difference between the tillage of those selling their canes and those manufacturing at home is most marked. In the one case the canes are no sooner out of the fields than the gangs and stock are at work preparing the land for the next crop, and all the fields tidy and clean. In the other case fields are left to take care of themselves until crop season is over."

Usines profits.—Upon a crop of 800 tons it is estimated by Mr. Kelly the usine would clear 200 francs per ton after paying the planter 6 per cent. Mr. Kelly adds that, large as this is, he was inclined to think from all he had heard it is near the truth.

In most usines hydraulic or other presses are employed for extracting the remanets of juice from the skimmings. The former are carefully returned to the clarifiers, the residuum being a hard cake which is used for fodder and manure.

Clarification of juice.—This is mainly effected with common lime only, the use of the bisulphate of lime being rare.

Use of charcoal.—The filters are filled with animal charcoal, which is covered with the best and softest fresh water procurable. Syrup is first passed through them for twenty-four hours; afterwards the juice from the clarifiers is sent through them for a like period. The effete charcoal is revived by washing in pure fresh water, and subsequent re-burning in furnaces especially constructed for that purpose. The absolute loss of charcoal is estimated from 12 to 14 lb. per ton of sugar. The cost of charcoal per ton of sugar, including cost of labour engaged in washing and other work and expenses for passing juice and syrup through the charcoal and other contingencies, is about sixpence per cwt. The use of bisulphate of lime is estimated in Demerara to cost about the same sum per cwt. An almost inexhaustible supply of pure fresh water is indispensable for washing the charcoal; water charged with earthy or saline matter will not suit, as the absorption of these by the charcoal is not rectified by the revivification process.

Rum and stills.—We were much struck with the distillery process and apparatus, and the superior quality of the rum manufactured at the usine. The stills are worked by steam, with continuous action, and a very pure spirit without any flavour of acetic ether (proof strength) is obtained, more resembling common *eau de vie* than rum in appearance and flavour. The average return, we were informed, was one puncheon per ton of sugar.

Advances.—Most usines, we were informed, both in Guadaloupe and Martinique, make advances to their contributory estates to assist the clearance and opening up of waste land as well as for the purchase of manures and stock. These advances are deducted from the next crop, and are made

with a liberal hand ; for instance, the advances made this year by the usine D'Arboussier amounted to £60,000. These advances without doubt have led to the great increase of cane cultivation in these islands, and reaches of country uncultivated for years have become weighted with sugar-canes. The advantage to all classes is manifest ; villagers and others residing close to estates under contract to a central factory with spare lands now in waste would be induced to grow canes upon these lands for their mutual benefit, upon terms which the interest of the proprietor would make easy for the cultivator.

We beg respectfully to refer to an article in No. 24 of the *Sugar-Cane*, and dated 1st July, 1871, page 376, and continued in No. 25, page 393, headed " French Central Factories," which gives an interesting *historique* (taken from the *Journal des Fabricants de Sucre*) of these establishments. As is forcibly pointed out by the writer, the first experiment made upon a large scale during a series of years, and accompanied by mischances and exceptional social conditions, has fully proved the soundness of the principle of separating agriculture from manufacture. What the isolated planter, bare of resources, was unable to do, the association of capital and concentration of labour fully realised without injury to the chief functions of the planter, which, on the contrary, have been greatly facilitated."

We were abundantly satisfied, and in fact it was proved to demonstration, that such a separation of the two conflicting interests of agriculture and manufacture has been a relief to the planter, and has converted him from the stagnation of despair and apathy to a life of energy and prosperity. It has been stated that the Central Factory system must ultimately conduce to the exhaustion of the soil on those estates supplying canes to the usines. That whereas in the ordinary system of manufacture little, if any, of the mineral elements of the cane are finally abstracted from the soil, these being restored in the form of megass ash, distillery refuse, &c., in that of central factories they are absolutely lost. This, it was admitted, was true ; but it has been provided against by the increased employment of chemical manures, these being composed so as to return to the land the principal mineral matters of which the cane has been, by analysis of its ash, found to deprive it. The most successful of these manures was generally considered to be that recommended by M. Georges Ville, an eminent French chemist, and formerly Director of the experimental farm of the Emperor, in the preface to the last edition of his work entitled, "*Les Engrais Chimiques*" (Paris, 1872.) It consists of the following ingredients in definite quantities : Super-phosphate of lime, chloride of potassium, sulphate of ammonia, sulphate of lime.

D'Arboussier imports this manure and advances it to its adherents, enjoining its liberal application. A member of the Committee on a former visit was shown a field of fifth rattoons which by its use was yielding two hogsheads per acre.

Process of manufacture in Demerara.—The Committee during their enforced stay here employed their time in inspecting the principal sugar-works in the vicinity of George Town. The process employed in all these works is the following :—

The canes are brought to the main line of tramway by the planter. The fac-

tory takes them to the mill, where the waggon is tilted up by a similar method to that employed in the French usines. The megass is elevated and is put by boxes running up on a elevated railway into "logies" or the yard to dry. The juice flows from the mill through the strainers into a pump, getting treated with bisulphate of lime *in transitu*. The pump elevates it to the clarifiers, where it is cracked, racked, and treated with lime. From this it flows on to the copper wall, where it is cleaned thoroughly, and is raised by montejus into subsidiers, where it is allowed to rest nine or ten hours. From these vessels the vacuum-pan draws the juice and boils it to sugar, the first quality being crystallised, and cured as soon as possible. The molasses, when good, is worked into syrup of the following day until they get so thick that they darken the first quality. They are then boiled by themselves, and form the second-quality sugar, being allowed several days to granulate in the coolers; the skimmings from clarifiers, and copper wall, and the subsidings from syrup boxes and the molasses from second quality sugar, going to make rum.

It will be seen that the essential difference between this and the French process is the entire elimination of the charcoal filters and triple effet, and with them the necessity of a large supply of pure water—a matter of much importance where this cannot easily be procured. This process is certainly simpler and less expensive, but whether it extracts the same amount of sugar from the juice may be doubted. We were unable to procure any positive data on this point. The charcoal filter separates from the juice not only the faecal matter, but also the soluble salts contained in it. The presence of these (principally salts of soda and potash) is known to have the effect of preventing a certain amount of sugar from crystallising. Experiments were instituted this year to decide this point in two of the principal factories of Martinique during the last fortnight of their working, but the results have not yet been published.

In conclusion, we cannot too strongly recommend the establishment in this island of a central factory calculated to make from 1,500 to 2,000 tons of sugar annually. The absence of an indispensable supply of fresh or soft water, not to speak of the cost, renders, in our opinion, the French usine system impracticable here. We must discard filtration by charcoal, and the triple effet. But it appears to us that the Demerara system would be admirably adapted to our requirements, while the cost is comparatively moderate. It must be remembered, too, that the quality of sugar made in Demerara is better suited to our markets, and commands higher prices, than the French usine sugar. In other words, the process of manufacture we recommend would retain alone the multitubular boilers, clarifiers, subsidiers, vacuum-pans and centrifugals. We have seen an estimate by an experienced engineering firm of the cost of a factory to make 1,000 tons of sugar in twenty-six weeks, and it appears to us sufficiently interesting to state it in this Report.

Estimate of factory.—To make 1,000 tons of sugar in twenty-six weeks in the same way as at Demerara, and which at the average of $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. sugar to the ton of canes would require 13,335 tons of canes, costing at 6 per cent £17,600.

The Machinery of this would be—			£	s.	d.
Mill gearing and engine	1,400	0	0
6 clarifiers and piping	600	0	0
Double copper wall, 6,000 gallons	850	0	0
24 600-gallon subsiders	960	0	0
Vacuum-pan	700	0	0
Engine for ditto	450	0	0
6 centrifugals and gearing	600	0	0
2 mult. boilers	900	0	0
2 mult. boilers loco.	1,000	0	0
Sugar-boxes..	500	0	0
Cane and megass carriers	250	0	0
Molasses-boxes, &c.	250	0	0
Pumps and piping...	600	0	0
Distillery	1,500	0	0
Buildings	1,500	0	0
Extras	1,000	0	0
Total cost of machinery...			£13,060	0	0
Charges, freight and cartage	£1,000	0	0		
Foundations ...	740	0	0		
Erecting ...	1,000	0	0		
				2,740	0 0
4 miles tramway ...	2,000	0	0		
Waggons ...	500	0	0		
30 mules @ £40 ...	1,200	0	0		
Megass Logies ...	1,000	0	0		
				4,700	0 0
			£20,500	0	0
Engineer's shop and cooperage ...			1,500	0	0
Total ...			22,000	0	0

The same firm estimates the working of the factory at the following prices:—

12 men at mill...	£124	16	0
5 „ „ megass	39	0	0
2 „ „ clarifier	20	16	0
10 „ „ copper wall...	104	0	0
25 boys & girls carrying megass	130	0	0
1 man at pen...	13	0	0
1 „ „ subsiders	10	0	0
2 men cleaning and attending	15	12	0
4 „ curing (centrifugals)...	41	12	0
15 „ at tramways	127	16	0
2 „ „ boilers	20	16	0
				647	8 0
Manager	500	0	0
2 overseers...	200	0	0
Engineer and staff	400	0	0
30 mules (keep and feeding)	600	0	0
				1,700	0 0
				£2,347	8 0

The following list of the usines last established in Martinique and actually at work, giving 6 per cent. for their canes, may be found interesting :—

Dilluvi.....	established 1871	Sainte Marie....	established 1872
Marivi.....	" "	Soudan	" "
Rivière Salee...	" "	Rivière Blanche	" "
Trinte	" "		

These usines have all contracted to pay 6 per cent. for their canes, and from all we could learn, no proprietor would now be willing to enter into fresh contracts at a less rate, while the general confidence in the power of the usines to pay 6 per cent. is shown by the ready manner in which their shares are placed. In a newspaper called *Les Antilles*, dated 6th July, 1872 several of these usines had advertised a dividend of 8 per cent. for the first six months of the year, it being understood that a further and larger dividend is always declared at the end of the year.

Local market.—The planter can readily dispose of his produce as soon as it is fit for market upon the spot, both in Guadeloupe and Martinique. Daily sales take place at a fixed hour in the forenoon upon the quays, and the competition amongst speculators for shipment is very keen, the telegraph being freely resorted to govern operations. The planter sends his produce to the selling place; here, at the time of auction, sample casks are opened at either ends so as to show the footings as well as the head sugars, and an average estimate is then made by the purchaser of the quality of the entire cask, and this estimate governs the price offered. The great advantage in every respect to the planter of a ready and immediate sale for his produce for cash upon the spot is too obvious to need comment. Rum is readily sold, and in any quantity, the consumption in France and the French colonies being very large. All molasses not turned into sugar is converted into rum.

The Livret system.—Vagrancy in the French islands is effectively repressed by the system known as the *livret* system. The police are empowered to arrest any one who cannot give a satisfactory account of his or her employment or means of living. Amongst the peasantry it is the practice to obtain a certificate or *livret* from their employers, which shows their engagements. Any person found wandering about without a *livret*, and who cannot explain satisfactorily the reason why he is out of employment, is liable to be punished by imprisonment as a vagabond. This system works very successfully, and compels the labouring portion of the people to industrial habits. So far as we could learn, there was little or no "squatting" in the French islands, though there are extensive ranges of uncultivated mountain and dell.

Para-grass.—This a fine grass which is said to be indigenous in Guadeloupe and Martinique; it grows in profusion in the fields, and is a most succulent fodder for cattle. We were told that it was a very useful agent in keeping down obnoxious grasses, while it does itself but little permanent injury to the young canes, and is easily removed when required from the land. We observed fields of young canes that appeared to be choked with the rank luxuriance of the Para-grass, but we were assured by more than

one planter that this was not the case, and it appeared to be the custom to let it grow among the canes until they were three or four months old. From all we could learn, its introduction into this island would be very beneficial.

Before leaving either island we submitted a series of carefully prepared questions in writing upon general subjects connected with Central Factories to disinterested persons, who promised to procure for us replies from reliable sources. We much regret that these have not yet been received, the explanation offered being that time had not sufficed to procure them. We should thereby have been enabled to give ampler collateral details in this Report, which we cannot close without stating that our warmest thanks are due for the kindness we received at the hands of those gentlemen in Guadeloupe and Martinique to whom we were introduced or to whom we applied for information. Our thanks are especially due to the Ordonnateur of Guadeloupe, M. Maze, and to Messrs. Gramm and Du Chaissaing of that island, and to the English Consul, Mr. Lawless, and Messrs. De Pompegmaier in Martinique. The latter are extensive landed proprietors, and in addition to the warmest private hospitality, enabled us by their introductions to obtain much valuable information from shareholders in usines and from the proprietors of contributory estates.

R. FRENCH SHERIFF.

F. B. HARMAN.

J. C. PURVIS.

DISCUSSION.

Sir JAMES WALKER, on being called upon to open the discussion, said he must reserve anything he had to say until he could read the paper and study it. He wished to express, however, as an old public servant—perhaps the oldest present—his satisfaction at the fact that the West Indian colonies were no longer put into the background, but were received into the category of English colonies. Formerly, when they read of the colonies, it was all America or Australia; now, however, the West Indian Colonies ranked amongst them. (Hear, hear.)

Sir RICHARD GRAVES MACDONNELL thought with the last speaker, that to do justice to Mr. Walker's paper they should have the opportunity of first seeing it in print. As an old Governor of one of the West Indian Islands, and as one who had held a governorship in Australia and North America, he begged to thank the lecturer for the attention he had given the subject, and for the manner in which he had treated it. He was most gratified to think, and statistics conclusively showed, that those colonies were rapidly advancing in prosperity. As the matter was such an important one, and one that could not be handled without refer-

ence to actual statistics, he thought it would be better to adjourn the discussion.

Mr. J. A. TINNÉ (Chairman of the Demerara Railway Company) said, although not a member of the Institute, he felt bound to express his obligations to Mr. Walker as a member of the West Indian Committee, and as one intimately connected with British Guiana, for drawing public attention to the West Indian colonies.

Mr. EDWARD WILSON observed that the discussion so far did not seem to take quite the same animated form that they were accustomed to, the principal reason he supposed being that the previous papers which had been read referred more to colonies that were better known to the majority of the members than the West Indies; but he thought Mr. Walker was entitled to their gratitude for having introduced to their notice very interesting regions about which many present were so little informed. (Hear, hear, and cheers.) He might say it was the case with himself. He knew very little about the West Indies, but he must admit that he had derived a great deal of information respecting them from the paper. There was one point which he was particularly struck with—one that ought to be prominently considered with people interested in the colonies—and that was a point indicating great knowledge of national interests and an admirable insight into all the causes of national warfare. When Mr. Walker spoke of the evil effects of importing or exporting too much of one thing, he (the speaker) could not help thinking of the many valuable exportable articles which our colonies were capable of producing, and which would be sure to find a market in some part of the world. Mr. Walker referred to the vast resource of the West Indian Islands and their fine range of products, but he warned them about leaning too much on the industry of sugar, and very rightly considering it might be competed with, and very likely would be competed with by the cultivation of the beet. He (the speaker) was much struck a little time ago with a report sent home from the present governor of Jamaica, suggesting the cultivation of fruit in the West Indian Colonies. It was stated that those islands could grow nearly all the most expensive fruits now sold so largely in England. If such was the case a very beautiful industry was opened—an industry which would doubtless prove highly profitable, and one which, while there was a good steam service, was capable of being utilised to a much greater extent than people generally imagined. But the main point upon which he wished to speak upon was the great want of a museum in this country for the exhibition of colonial productions. It was really shocking, consi-

dering the splendid varieties of products the colonies might furnish, that they had never been able to obtain such a museum on a scale of national importance. He would urge Mr. Walker to recommend it in his paper, and would ask him to bring specimens of the different productions of the West Indian Islands; let the Australians also bring specimens of their products, and let Canada and the other colonies join with them, and then let there be found a suitable place where all these articles could be exhibited—a place conveniently located in town where any enterprising young man who had got restless in his nest could go and walk from case to case, and determine whether he would grow sugar, wool, coffee, cotton, or what not. Such an exhibition would practically represent the worth of our various colonies. He was sorry to see, and especially when he remembered that it was to have been part and parcel of their scheme, that no action had been taken in this matter by the Royal Colonial Institute.

Mr. LEONARD WRAY, as an old West Indian, said he wished to thank Mr. Walker for his able and interesting paper. At the time he arrived in the West Indies, the noble chairman's grandfather had just quitted the island. He (the speaker) had passed ten years of his life in the West Indies, and had seen the inhabitants in their slavery, their apprenticeship, and their freedom. Mr. Walker's paper recalled the hope that every West Indian must cherish, namely, that those islands were likely soon to become themselves once again, for it must ever be remembered that they were once very bright jewels in the crown of England. The vessels that sailed from this country for the West Indies not only took out large quantities of goods for the planters, but they all came home laden with the products of those islands. It would scarcely be believed that the richest estates were furnished by the proprietors in England, but such was the case—all their beer, port wine, bacon, and such like articles were sent from this country. The time of the inhabitants was wholly given to the manufacture of certain great staples, as sugar, rum, coffee, chocolate, &c. In 1834, when the Emancipation Bill was passed and the negroes were set free, there was invested in Jamaica alone £111,000,000 sterling. The estates at that time were very magnificent. He had known the overseer of one estate to have in his house no less a sum than £800 in silver belonging to the proprietor. It was also no uncommon thing for as many as thirty servants to be kept in one house. As an instance of the size and costliness of the buildings in Jamaica, he would mention Rose House, Trelawny, the residence of Mr. Rose Price. In that building there were 365

windows looking on to the sea, and the whole of it, which was wood, was made of nothing less valuable than cedar, while the principal part of it was mahogany. As for their luxury, that was proverbial, but far beyond that was their hospitality. Nothing could give Englishmen an idea of it. After a stay of six months he went to the East Indies, but their hospitality was nothing compared to that of the West Indies. In the West Indies a man was hospitable from his nature. Even from the hut of the planter the same spirit of hospitality was met with. But now all this had passed away. And why? It was very easy for him to say, because he had passed through the ordeal. At one time the whole country was nothing but a beautiful garden. But the Bill for the abolition of slavery came, and prosperous colonies were immediately turned into a state of adversity. No labour was to be had. For months after the negroes became free, in August 1838, not one could be got to go into the coffee-fields. They said, and very justly, "What is the use of my being a free man and having to work." It was but a natural idea, and for some time no work of any kind was done. In consequence of the high rate of wages estate after estate was ruined. The Duke of Buckingham's plantation, which used to yield 700,000 lbs. of sugar, came down to yield only 70,000 lbs. The white creole ultimately had to flee the country in order to better himself, and no labour of any kind was to be obtained. Such was the result of the emancipation of slavery in the West Indies. He was glad to find that a turn in the tide had recently taken place, and that there was every prospect of those islands becoming as prosperous as they had hitherto been. Under the new *régime* they were likely to be formidable rivals to the Australian colonies—colonies which had grown up giants, and which England might well be proud of, for so long as they remained integral portions of the empire, England was invincible. (Hear, hear, and cheers.) There surely could not be any jealousy between West Indian colonists and those from the Australias. It was to the common interest that all should be united, and each form a minute part of the Empire. If this was done, and each was bound together as a whole, they might bid the world defiance. (Hear, hear, and cheers.)

The Hon. Mr. TOBIN said Mr. Walker's lecture to him had been as the light of other days. Forty-seven years ago he went to the West Indies, and he had not forgotten his visit nor the incidents connected with it even now. There was one point he wished to insist upon—namely, that there was no city more entitled to listen to any appeal from the West Indies than the City of London. He

remembered the time when the principal merchants here were West Indian merchants, and when we were obliged to make the West India Docks to keep up a rivalry with those of the East Indies. The West Indies, as they all knew, had been in very great difficulties ; in fact, no country in the world had gone through a greater or more severe struggle. They had wealth untold ; they had the leading men of this country as Governors, and their Members of Parliament were men who were greatly influenced by those who had West Indian property ; but for all this they were only just now being brought out of a prolonged state of adversity. Mr. Wray had told them of estates which used to yield 700,000 lbs. of sugar being in such a position as not to yield more than 70,000 lbs. He (the speaker) knew of an estate which cost £50,000 which not many years ago was going as a drug in the market for £3,000. The proprietors had no means of furnishing labour of any kind, and their lands were left perfectly uncultivated. In conclusion, he thanked Mr. Walker for his paper, and remarked that there was no part of our dominions that deserved more of this country than the West Indies. (Hear, hear.)

Mr. H. W. FREELAND said if he were competent to speak on the paper, and touch upon all the bearings of the question, he should feel that it would be desirable that one should be able to peruse it carefully before venturing to express any decided opinion upon the various topics it so ably embraced. He was anxious to put a question to Mr. Walker, and to make one suggestion. If his memory served him rightly, he thought Mr. Walker alluded to the great want of the West Indian Colonies as a want of labour, and that the best and most economical way of supplying that labour was the great difficulty under which they were suffering. Well, they all knew that probably of all famines a labour famine was one of the worst. But he understood Mr. Walker also to say that certain diplomatic difficulties had interposed to prevent that importation of Chinese labour which was so essential to the welfare of the West Indies. If such was the case, it was time for the mother country to interfere in the matter. Mr. Walker did not say what the difficulties were, but he (the speaker) would remind him that there were certain members of the House of Commons connected with the Colonial Institute, who would be most willing, if the difficulties were pointed out to them through the medium of this discussion or otherwise, to bring the matter before Parliament, and take other steps for their removal. (Hear, hear.) The suggestion he had to make was that the statistics on the chart before them, showing the progress of the West Indies, should be incorporated with the

paper. He did not think that, except in drawing public attention to such matters as had been alluded to on the present occasion, the Colonial Institute could do very much. It could, no doubt, do a great deal in expressing those sympathies which they all felt towards the different members of our empire; and he was glad to find a gentleman present state that they were not working in vain, even if they only endeavoured to extend the sympathetic ties which bound the mother country to her colonies. He was one of those who believed old times were returning, and he thought the Colonial Institute had performed no unimportant part in bringing about such a happy result. As regards the formation of a museum, spoken of by Mr. Wilson, he did not think much could be done in that matter by the Institute at present. It was not the first time the subject had been mentioned; the advantages of such a museum had frequently been discussed by the members since it was first brought to their notice by Mr. Hyde Clarke. No doubt it was a very good thing to do, but there were many things which were good to do, which they would like to see done, but which were not so easy to bring into practical action, or to put into practical form. (Hear, hear.) There was no doubt that such an exhibition would teach them in what way the commercial ties—those which bound the empire together more firmly than any others—could be increased, and he only hoped that the energies and practical experience of Mr. Wilson would be employed in giving development to the point he had so ably dwelt upon. He (the speaker) was sure they were all indebted to Mr. Walker for his paper. He had listened to it with great pleasure, and had gained from it a large amount of valuable information.

Mr. RICHARD RAMSDEN said there was one or two points in the paper he should like to speak upon. In the first place he wished to say that the one great disadvantage to coolie labour in Jamaica was that the planter could not depend upon the coolies. If they felt at all uncomfortable in their situation they immediately committed suicide. The next point was one which required some attention. He did not think that sufficient women were imported in proportion to the men; the consequence was that quarrels were always taking place. It was very seldom that the coolies intermarried with the natives. As regards the cultivation of fruits, all he could say was that the fruit-trees in Jamaica were very fine. At present only a few were cultivated, but he thought this discussion would give a stimulus to "that beautiful industry," as Mr. Wilson was pleased to call it. (Hear, hear.)

Mr. G. R. GODSON said he could speak with some experience

of the West Indies, as an uncle of his was a large slave-holder and planter in one of the islands. The great difficulty they had to contend with was one of labour. It was an easy matter to find emigrants if the inhabitants would pay for them, but they would not. The Government would not advance any money for emigration purposes, and consequently labourers were scarce. With regard to the cultivation of fruit, that was an industry which would pay if proper persons, with some knowledge of the subject, could be obtained. He doubted, however, whether such individuals would care to work in a tropical climate.

Mr. J. A. TINGE said the Chinese coolie was about the best kind of labourer they had in British Guiana. He considered the great difficulty they had to contend with was the objection on the part of the Chinese Government to allow females to emigrate with the males. The Chinese were very much prejudiced in this matter. At one time it was tried to induce the Government of this country to remove the objections, but without any satisfactory results. If females could only be imported with the males the West Indian Colonies would be in a much better position than they were at the present time, but he doubted whether the prejudices of the Chinese could be removed. As regards the exhibition of Colonial products in this country, spoken of by Mr. Wilson, it was not the fault of the West Indies if the British manufacturer was not made acquainted with the resources of those islands. West Indian products, and especially woods of various kinds, were exhibited largely in the last two International Exhibitions held in London. There was one article, however, which public attention should be drawn to—an article that was now very much used in commerce, namely gutta-percha. There were trees in several of the West India islands capable of producing no end of this commodity, and if only the attention of the British public could be drawn to that fact, another very profitable industry would be likely to be set on foot.

Colonel DOMVILLE believed the principal reason why the emigrants did not take females with them was because the coolies lived for the most part in a state of polygamy—each woman had about eight or ten husbands.

Mr. LEONARD WRAY said he was surprised to hear such a statement from one so intimately connected with both the East and West Indies. The masses of India lived in no such state. The real fact was that the coolie wished to go to the West Indies for a time to earn a little money, and then to return to his home and live with his wife in China. He did not think it would be possible

to get the women to leave their homes and emigrate with their husbands : any way, they would want a good deal of persuasion.

Colonel DOMVILLE said his observations referred to the coolies of Ceylon.

Mr. EDWARD WALKER never could understand why the women did not emigrate with the men. Some years ago he happened to be in China and saw too vessels packed with coolies for Peru. On asking where the women were he was told it did not pay to get them. There was not a woman on board.

Mr. C. D. COLLET said it was clear now what the diplomatic difficulties were. They were such as prevented a free flow of emigration, and he was not surprised at them being placed in the way when he called to mind the manner in which the Chinese had been treated for the last twenty years by the English Government. He begged leave to remind the meeting that our late ambassador in China threw up his situation in disgust, simply because he did not like the treatment which the Chinese had received at the hands of English statesmen. Some time ago they wished to open up three coal mines, and although there was a convention which permitted that to be done, Lord Granville refused to ratify it, and he did so on the recommendation of the Chinese merchants resident in London.

Mr. GEORGE CRAWSHAY said if any gentleman would take the trouble to read the blue-books on the subject, they would find that a system of kidnapping was very much complained of. He believed the solution of the labour difficulty was to be found in China—a country which had the most numerous population in the world—and if the coolie inhabitants could be induced to transplant themselves with their women to the British Colonies, the labour question would be at once and for ever solved. (Hear, hear.)

Mr. E. WILSON considered it was all very well to advocate the introduction of Chinese labour into British Colonies, but he would rather that those possessions were reserved for Europeans.

Mr. GEORGE CRAWSHAY reminded the last speaker that his observations referred to the West Indies, and to countries in which Europeans could not work.

The noble CHAIRMAN said he thought he might now congratulate Mr. Walker on the general approbation his paper had called forth. The subject was certainly one which must have some sort of interest to him from the fact, as Mr. Leonard Wray remarked, that his grandfather was for a long time Governor of one of the West India islands. All he hoped was that he had left favourable recollections behind him. With regard to the possibility of exhi-

biting Colonial productions in this country, that was a subject which had more than once been alluded to at their meetings, and he did not think Mr. Wilson could blame the Institution for any neglect in the matter. It was obvious that a building capable of holding the various products of our Colonies, which fortunately—and they might well be proud of the fact—covered almost every portion of the globe, must be a very extensive one. At present they had not sufficient funds to build such a museum, but it struck him while sitting in the chair that it would be a most legitimate use to make of a part of the South Kensington Museum. (Hear, hear, and cheers.) Certainly they might make an attempt to get a portion of that building set apart for the exhibition of Colonial productions, and if they went to the Privy Council he had no doubt they would succeed. Such a museum would be very useful, and he thought the Government could hardly refuse to grant such a modest request. It now only remained for him to thank Mr. Walker for his very able and interesting paper, and to congratulate him on the universal approbation it had called forth. (Cheers.)

Mr. W. WALKER, in summing up the debate, said with regard to Mr. Freeland's question there was at one time a sort of Imperial objection to Chinese leaving their country, but that had been overcome. Then followed the system of kidnapping the coolies, and since that practice was commenced the authorities felt disinclined to countenance Chinese emigration. As far as his own experience went, he knew the coolies to be always well cared for, and their voyage rendered as safe and comfortable as possible. A stop was put to all Chinese emigration in 1866, and since that date it was not permitted to be renewed. Our English minister, however, was in communication with the Chinese Government at the present time, and it was hoped that the coolie would soon be allowed to emigrate to the West India islands under the same condition as the Spanish labourer. There were several documents which he could not introduce into his paper for fear of making it too long, but which were of a very interesting character. He thanked the gentlemen present for the kind way in which he and his paper had been received. (Cheers.)

Sir RICHARD GRAVES MACDONNELL begged leave before the meeting broke up, to explain one or two matters on which some misapprehension existed, matters of considerable importance to West Indian interests, as being connected with the supply of Chinese coolie labour to those Colonies. Several of those present appeared to think that the main obstacle to such emigration from China was caused by diplomatic difficulties. Having been officially circum-

stanced during several years so as almost to be an eye-witness of the occurrences affecting that emigration, and having also had to correspond with H. M. Government at great length on the subject, he might say that the difficulty had rather been a planter's difficulty than one occasioned by any diplomatic arrangement. The Chinese Government naturally felt extremely pained by the atrocities committed in the conduct of emigration from Macao, and the sufferings of the coolies transported to Peru. There were excellent regulations on paper at Macao, but nevertheless it was notorious that coolies seized in piratical attacks on villages along the Chinese coast could be, and were for many years back passed through those regulations, and embarked for the Havannah and Peru, where their sufferings were often most severe, and the breach of almost all promises made to them most shameful. The Chinese Government, therefore, had resolved some years ago not to allow any emigration from China except on adequate guarantee of a return passage to every emigrant at the end of five years. He believed the West India planters were willing to give the required guarantee, but only at the end of eight years, on the ground that a shorter period of hired labour by the coolie would not pay. The emigration, therefore, from Canton had been brought to a close. H. M. Government had also stopped the emigration from Hong Kong for several reasons, but principally to avoid giving offence to the Chinese authorities. Many questioned the policy of that step, unless the emigration from Macao could be stopped also. There were no abuses of the emigration from Hong Kong—everything there connected with the government was well in hand at the time, and the closing of emigration from Hong Kong was, of course, a handing over to the iniquitous kidnappers at Macao of the control of the so-called emigration. It was as it were removing a police-station from the vicinity of criminals, and allowing to the latter complete freedom of action. He hoped, nevertheless, that a well-regulated system of emigration from China to the West Indies might soon be established, for although, possibly, we might get on well enough without Chinese in Australia, he nevertheless believed that no labour was so valuable in the West Indies as that which could be supplied by the Chinese—a race which combined the intelligence and strength of the European with the negro's power to resist climatic influences in tropical countries.





